

# The Social Studies

VOLUME XL, NUMBER 3

Continuing *The Historical Outlook*

MARCH, 1949

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# The Social Studies

VOLUME XL, NUMBER 3

MARCH, 1949

## Freshman History: Reality or Metaphysics?<sup>1</sup>

GEORGE L. MOSSE

*State University of Iowa, Iowa City, Iowa*

### I

"We have, in fact, reached a time when we should stop, look and listen," Cordell Hull tells us in his *Memoirs*. "We should analyze ourselves and our position in the world with sharp introspection." Lately, both historians and academic faculties in general have done this very thing. A new approach to the curriculum through programs of general education has brought in its wake a re-examination of the role and nature of the freshman history course in a student's college program. The emphasis is being placed upon the "core" of knowledge and understanding which the student must possess if he is to be a useful member of our community. By and large, this has led to new stress on "synthesizing" diverse fields of knowledge, in order to give the student a feeling of unity in our civilization and its tradition—at a moment in history when unity in modern thought seems to be lost in the growing specialization of all branches of knowledge.

In recognition of this need for unity, we now have certain new types of courses for the freshman students in Western Civilization. These courses tend to concentrate upon the search for "climates of opinion" or for "ideal types" in the tradition of Max Weber. Often several "typical" centuries are singled out for treatment, and within these centuries the "ideal type" is further isolated. For example, St. Louis becomes the ideal type of synthesis of the thirteenth century and Louis XIV of the seventeenth. Combined with this "spot" treatment we find now and then a quest for general patterns of social behavior and attempts to lay down general laws for "eternal man." Obviously, both concepts of social psychology and the method of the social sciences have great influence upon these types of core courses.

### II

The survey course of the past, with its emphasis on political history, seems inadequate to many, and awkward in the light of current trends in historical study. For, so the argument against these survey courses runs, what does the student remember of dates, battles and kings once he has passed his final examination? Is it not more important that he get a feeling of the great thought and ideals which underlie our way of life? Moreover, there is little synthesizing of diverse fields of knowledge in the old survey course. Literature, philosophy and social psychology should all unite in the story of our civilization; a mere chronicling of dates, battles and treaties is worthless.

In some instances even, a course in the "Humanities" has replaced all historical studies. Here the great "masterpiece," the great literary or philosophic achievements introduce the student into his heritage of Western Civilization. The postulate of these courses seems to be that the "Classic is a book which is contemporary to every age." We can pass over such courses for they are not, and do not pretend to be, historical studies, though they are the extreme outgrowth of programs of general education with their stress on the unity of our heritage.

But after all, we are teaching freshmen who need primarily the proper historical framework before they start upon philosophical speculations or tackle great and profound historical problems. Let us therefore not discard rashly all of the old survey in order to keep up with the present-day fashions. Let the student by all means get a glimpse of great ideologies,

<sup>1</sup> Read at the Sixty-third Annual Meeting of the American Historical Association in Washington, D. C., December 29, 1948.

let him read the sources, let him grasp the great social and economic movements of the times—but let him also know the facts of history. The facts are there. They cannot be ignored, and history without them may be a course in humanities or in speculative philosophy, but it is no longer history. Let us still teach the humdrum data first before drawing inferences. Such information must be assimilated before the freshman plunges into the philosophic or the literary. Any synthesis must be based upon the scope of facts, and the teaching of freshman history must still be largely a matter of putting across a solid framework of historical data.

The synthesized "core course" approach to freshman "History of Western Civilization," though in tune with the current trend of historical scholarship, seems to run certain dangers. First of all, we tend to synthesize the unsynthesizable. Are we really so sure that Western Civilization and the bodies of knowledge contained within it are as closely related as programs of general education would have us believe? It is a danger worth noting; that such a program may become geared to propagate artificially a set philosophy in order to restore a unity which may never have existed. Or, as in too many of the social sciences, we may try to cover up our despair by concentrating upon long discussions of methodology. As Roy F. Nichols has pointed out in the *American Historical Review* (October, 1948, p. 86), much good work still remains to be done upon such problems as the reciprocal relationship between environment and behavior. Are we really justified in involving the freshman in speculations which puzzle even mature historical scholars?

Also, this search for the "ideal type," whether it be a man or a century, certainly neglects the elements of continuity and development which are involved in obtaining an historical perspective upon the present. An examination of particular human situations in the past does not seem as needed for the freshman as the obtaining of a sense of constant historical development. We must surely beware of such an artificial approach to history.

Chronology, for example, is still important if the student is to get the sense of perspective of the evolution of past institutions, or of past

thought into that of the present. It does matter, even for the freshman, whether James I antedated Cromwell, whether the Peace of Westphalia came after or before the Thirty Years' War. It is difficult to see how the student can keep his chronology in order without learning some dates. We must also remember that political history, though it may but be the superstructure of economic and social movements, does influence and even help to determine the life of nations. Was the development of Lutheranism, for example, not largely determined by so-called political facts? How can a student grasp the rise of Spain in the "dynastic age" without knowing something, preferably a great deal, about the "dynasts" themselves? Is the whole development of the idea of nationalism in its early stages not tied up with the "dynastic idea"? In the sixteenth century, there are moments when a genealogical table can have as much concrete historical importance as a great body of philosophical thought. It is perhaps more challenging to teach the student a comprehension of some great stream of ideology. Any freshman teacher, however, will still have to meet the problem of making political events, battles and kings come to life; and here we can still learn much from our historical forefathers like Hallam, Prescott and Ranke.

History has a contribution to make. Even if the student forgets James I, or the Peace of Westphalia, he will have obtained a sense of historical development, insights into the workings of politics and diplomacy which will stand him in good stead when he has to make those political choices which every citizen in our democracy is constantly forced to make.

### III

It is easy to be critical of the present in the name of the past, to advocate the return to a supposed "golden age" when freshmen were still taught "history" instead of social science or humanistic "syntheses." Such futile argument would deny the lessons of historical development which historians would like to see even freshmen understand. There is a type of Western Civilization course which does attempt to retain "history" while giving it a broader base. The University of Iowa adopted such a course five years ago, and it might serve as example of one new approach to the problem

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which might meet the criticisms put forward above. Other institutions, like Ohio State University, Iowa State College and Clark University, to mention just a few, have independently arrived at much the same solution for their freshman history courses in their programs of general education.

History is a continuous process, yet it must obviously be limited for purposes of study. One of the justified criticisms of the old survey course was its length. There was little one could accomplish in a narrative ranging from Egyptian times to the present, except to enumerate the chief events. We at Iowa felt that if the scope of the course could be narrowed, we would be able to go into greater detail and therefore give the student more insights into historical development. While limiting the course chronologically, we decided to expand it geographically. A course in modern Europe or modern America would no longer suffice. For the student is part of the tradition of both continents, and all his choices as citizen involve a knowledge of both.

Moreover, the basic program should be tied in closely with the historical studies pursued by the student in the secondary schools. In spite of the obvious defects of these studies, we in Iowa could at least count on one thing: namely, that the student would bring with him a framework of American history. Thus the integration of American and European history into a course in Western Civilization was greatly facilitated. We did, and do not aim to, give two separate courses in European and American history with equal weight upon both. Such procedure would defeat our very purpose. Some institutions have shied away from integrating European and American history and follow up one half year of one with a half year of the other. This seems a useless procedure. It would be better to cover one more thoroughly than to rush over both.

It is true that we must be suspicious of many processes of integration; however, we have tried not to integrate the unintegrable. Our emphasis is upon Europe, not upon the United States. It is arguable that, at least for the freshman, the synthesis of American-European history is a more valid one than that which tries to integrate the different disciplines of the social sciences or of the humanities in

the name of a complete unity of Western Civilization.

This can be made clear if the organization of the course is analyzed. The first half of the course, leading up to the Congress of Vienna, does not present great difficulties in integration. Colonial America, after all, was part of the general expansion of Europe. It has proved profitable to follow the road Dietrich Gerhard mapped out in his "England und der Aufstieg Russlands," in trying to demonstrate the general Europeanization of the world. Thus we show how in the eighteenth century, for example, Europe penetrated both the East and the West by drawing Russia within its political orbit as well as the New World. The student thus, from the very start, obtains a new sense of proportion as far as the American development is concerned. It is in the second term that difficulties of integration begin. For it would be unhistorical to ignore—in the name of the unity of western culture and civilization—the indigenous elements which the new American nation developed.

From 1815 to 1918 the organization of the course combines the discussion of the chief general movements with chronological approach. It starts out with an analysis of Liberalism and Reaction taken through the Revolutions of 1848. Then the course turns to the discussion of Nationalism which, in turn takes the developments up to 1870. After that Big Business and Labor and the Diplomacy leading up to 1914 are taken up. It is clear that a certain overlapping cannot be avoided. A lecture prefacing each unit deals in a more general way with the roots and course of the movement to be discussed. As far as America is concerned, it is shown how these movements were also a part of the American scene and in what way the American expression of them differed, or did not differ, from that of Europe.

This is a difficult task, partly however, because historians of the American development have concentrated on detailed analyses rather than on summation of broad movements like Nationalism and Liberalism, which might be helpful to such a course and to the students; just as American history texts have been geared, naturally enough, to a detailed account of this country's history which might be used in a full year course on that subject. We hope

that as such courses in Western Civilization develop, we may have more general treatments of the chief movements and trends of American history.

The course is organized roughly by decades, from 1918 on, treating both Europe and America with equal emphasis, trying more and more to evaluate the American impact upon Europe and America's role as a world power. To accomplish its aim, the course meets four hours a week, two in lectures and two in discussion sections. It is plagued, as yet, by having to use two texts, one European and one American. However, this does force the student to refurbish his American history at the same time that he sees it from a new perspective.

There is also a source book with brief source extracts which tie in with the political and economic development. Students read, for example, Bodin, Hobbes and Locke. This is mainly to discover how men rationalize the changing features of our civilization. The extracts are distilled, for we do not treat them as "great books," as a freshman would not benefit much by being forced to read all of *The Leviathan* or of *The République*. These source extracts are illustrations rather than introductions to philosophy. It is more important for the freshman to understand the continuity and development of history than to pause for a long time over a single source. Otherwise, here again we might run the danger of slanting the course towards the search for the "ideal type" or the "typical expression."

#### IV

The question naturally arises: Is this American-European synthesis broad enough to fulfill its purpose? Surely a student, in order to make intelligent political choices in our society, must know more about Russia and more about the Far East than such a course can give him. It is hoped that the time will come when courses on both these subjects will also be compulsory under the "Program of General Studies." To know something about these two civilizations is as important, if not more important, for the citizen of today than to be exposed in the basic college program to social science syntheses, which more often than not merely repeat what the student already knew in high school.

Furthermore, what is really needed is a coordinate plan of study between secondary and

higher education. Through this coordination the student would obtain a thorough survey of American history as well as of the social sciences in high school, then proceed to a study of Western Civilization in his freshman year and to Russian and Eastern Civilization in his sophomore year. The effectiveness of such a course of study can be seen in the fact that National Socialist Germany had a concerted plan of what they called historical studies beginning in elementary school and proceeding through the university. This was history as political propaganda<sup>2</sup> and it was enormously successful. Can we not, with a concerted integrated plan of historical study, make history equally effective as a means of understanding and of good citizenship? The growing majority of our citizens would be led from a study of local history to the understanding of world events.

Meanwhile, a history of Western Civilization as it has been sketched should be a part of any broad program of general studies, even though time does not allow the inclusion of much literature, art or speculative philosophy, or for the search into the many-sided problems of human behavior. There is no easy road to historical knowledge or to the analysis of historical manifestations; we have to provide a framework of data first. Although this general approach may seem pedestrian, it gives the student not only a method or an attitude for the present, but also an understanding of his society.

We consider ourselves fortunate if in a year's time we have taught the elements of history to our students—history conceived somewhat narrowly, to be sure. Nonetheless, without such a narrow framework, freshman history courses will run the danger of creating students who have the speculative facility without having the facts, and whose comprehension of the historical process will be without the proper foundations. I know full well that all teaching of history implies interpretation, and that even Ranke interpreted while he extolled objectivity. This is a matter of degree and not of absolutes.

For the education of the citizen, towards which all general education strives, the terra firma of reality is vastly more important than

<sup>2</sup> As set forth by Dietrich Klagges in his voluminous *Geschichte als Nationalpolitische Erziehung*.

the scholastic deduction from speculative and metaphysical absolutes. There exists no real dichotomy between making the freshman course a great intellectual experience for all students while, at the same time, equipping those who propose to do upper class work in history with

the requisite knowledge and method. To see a contradiction between these two functions is to deny that valid intellectual experience must be based in the last resort upon both method and data. The aim of the freshman history course must still be, after all, to teach history.

## The Madison Conference and the Committee of Seven: A Reconsideration

ROBERT E. KEOHANE

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In the choice of this topic two considerations were controlling. First was simply a personal interest in American educational history, and a firm conviction that we shall never understand our professional selves until we know better our professional past. Second, I am an educational "missionary" recently returned from Germany. There I found that, despite our admittedly imperfect educational system, we still have something to teach the Germans about democratic education. At the same time I confirmed my suspicion that, given sufficient powers of observation and other qualities conducive to learning, American educators could still learn a few things from Germans. My short "tour of duty" there made me sensitive to evidences of German (and other Continental) influences in the development of American higher and secondary education in the period with which we are here concerned.

In this paper, I have tried to show the educational context in which the Madison Conference and the Committee of Seven of the 1890's worked to lay the basis of the history curriculum of the American secondary school. I have attempted to relate their work to that of the two broader committees of which they were actually subcommittees, respectively the Committee of Ten and the Committee on College Entrance Requirements. In so doing, I have tried to show how their problems appeared to the members of these committees, and to indicate the relationship of their work to the contending influences, foreign and native, which were then shaping our emerging secondary school system. Finally, I have asked a few of the larger questions which this study has suggested about the

future of secondary education in the United States.

Paradoxically, one of the developments of major significance for American secondary education in the last quarter of the nineteenth century was the emergence of the American university. In 1870, the United States did not possess one real university in the modern sense; by 1890, at least six or eight American institutions were fairly comparable to good European universities, and more were soon to meet that standard. With the exception of Johns Hopkins and Cornell, these universities had developed out of long-established American colleges. Within two decades, under the leadership of men trained in Continental universities, the leading American colleges had been made over into universities, while still retaining some collegiate features. They had discarded a narrow curriculum, which still stressed the classical languages, in a "gerund-grinding" sort of way, and had given the modern subjects—the natural sciences, the modern languages and literatures, history and allied studies—their chance for a place in the academic sun.

This revolutionary transformation was accomplished largely through the mechanism of two devices: departmental specialization and the elective system. A graduate school was superimposed upon the college, and university specialization became the rule for the upper years of the college course, squeezing into the first year or two the "collegiate work" which, in a considerably modified form, still represented the ideal of liberal and general education. The elective system served as the indispensable means by which the "outsiders" of the college

curriculum of 1870 could unite to abolish the privileged position of the classical languages and mathematics. Thus were applied to the academic realm the principles of competition which seemed to ensure survival of the fittest, whether in the world of nature or of man. Or, if such "social Darwinism" were too strong medicine for the more ethically minded, the revolutionary changes could be justified in a more academic way. They applied in America the great secret of the success of our German model—*Lehrfreiheit* and *Lernfreiheit*—the freedom to teach what and as one preferred to teach (within some limits, of course), and to study what one would.

Before we can trace the effects upon the secondary school of this revolution in American higher education, we must inquire as to what the secondary school then was. The usual answer to this question is that the secondary school included academies, public high schools, and most normal schools. But actually, as the leaders of American education were well aware, these institutions did not exhaust the list. The last two years of the eight-year elementary school were properly a part of the secondary school. In any realistic sense also, the first year or two of the better colleges, all of the poorest ones, should be so classified. Something might be done—eventually it was—about attaching the last two years of the "grammar school" to the high school. But the latter institution and the typical college were too remote from one another in origin, character, and control, it seemed, to permit any widespread structural change. Their mutual independence was "given"—and the problem of the curriculum-maker was to bring about the best relationship which could be secured between two such autonomous and often highly competitive organizational units. Thus we Americans, albeit out of apparent necessity, turned the process of educational planning upside down, and searched for the objectives and curricula proper to an organizational pattern which, like Topsy, had "just growed," instead of fitting the structure to educational purpose and content.

The emergence of the American university had at least three significant and direct effects upon the general secondary school situation in the United States in the 1890's. First, the successful establishment of university work in the

upper years of the college made for heavier demands upon the secondary school in preparing students for college. Though the classical languages and mathematics remained of primary importance in the admissions requirements of the 1870's, a few colleges began to set entrance examinations in English literature, in French and German, in physical science and in United States history.<sup>1</sup> Thus the high school was being pressed by the college to do some of the work which the latter had done earlier, or had left undone. At the same time the high school was urged to give more advanced studies to the great majority of its students who did not plan to go to college, and thus to fulfil its function as the "people's college." In the second place, specialization in American colleges and universities was beginning to produce teachers for colleges and secondary schools of a quality, as Willis M. West remarked in 1890, "to be had nowhere in America twenty years ago."<sup>2</sup> Finally, some of these teachers prepared better textbooks and other materials which made possible the improved teaching of the "new" studies in the secondary school.

Now let us turn to history and her allies as they were changing in the United States under the impact of vitalizing European influences, modified by American traditions and institutions. Americans who came back from European study and travel had learned what scholarship in history, political science, and economics meant, and were eager to teach here the truth which had made them free. Such missionaries to their homeland were J. W. Burgess out of Goettingen, Leipzig, and Berlin to Columbia; Herbert B. Adams and Richard T. Ely out of Berlin and Heidelberg to Johns Hopkins; those two Yale friends, Andrew D. White and Daniel C. Gilman, whose studies and travels in France, Germany, and Russia, were to help them along the educational road to the presidencies of the first two new post-Civil War universities. And if one could conceive of Henry Adams as a missionary to anyone, we would cite his travels and rather slight studies in Germany, France, and Italy, his contacts with men of letters and of

<sup>1</sup> E. C. Broome, *A Historical and Critical Discussion of College Admission Requirements* (New York, 1902), pp. 61-68.

<sup>2</sup> Willis M. West, "The Purpose and Scope of History in the High School," *Journal of Proceedings and Addresses . . . 1890* [National Educational Association] (Topeka, Kansas, 1890), p. 648.

affairs in Britain, as a significant factor in the renascence of American historical studies between 1870 and 1890. These men, and scores of less well-known associates who had had similar education abroad, established real university work in this country in history and the social sciences. In so doing, they "Americanized" the German seminar method, they established journals and other publication outlets for the results of scholarly research, and they organized themselves into professional associations for the extension of their mutual education and influence.

Perhaps this process of cultural transmission, its character, and the rapidity with which, once begun, it spread, is best exemplified for us by the first American "methods" book in our field. In 1883, Professor G. Stanley Hall, then of Johns Hopkins, brought out his *Methods of Teaching and Studying History*. Almost half of the work consisted of a translation from the popular German pedagogical work, Diesterweg's *Wegweiser zur Bildung für Deutsche Lehrer*.<sup>3</sup> About 25 per cent of the work was composed of an explanation of the topical method of teaching history, with bibliography and topics, by Professor W. F. Allen of the University of Wisconsin. Less than 20 per cent of the book was devoted to the description, by four Americans, of their methods of teaching history in universities.<sup>4</sup> But when the second edition appeared two years later, Dr. Diesterweg's contribution had been dropped, only one non-American—Professor J. R. Seeley of Cambridge University—appeared among the authors, and chapters on the teaching of political science and political economy had been added. Finally, and significantly, there was a chapter, with concrete classroom examples, which was addressed by an experienced secondary school headmaster to teachers of history in academies and high schools.

Between 1875 and 1890 important improvements in the conditions of secondary school history teaching took place. The more accurate, better organized, and more interesting textbooks by Alexander Johnston and Edward

Eggleston represented a considerable gain over their predecessors.<sup>5</sup> In the field of general history, Mary Sheldon Barnes made a significant effort to vitalize teaching through the use of her "source-textbook," *Studies in General History*, and through her detailed explanation, in the accompanying manual, of the way to use the "seminary" or "source" method on the high school level.<sup>6</sup> The publication of the *Old South Leaflets* from 1883 provided primary sources of American history for schools in inexpensive form.<sup>7</sup> The first known "history laboratory" in the American high school was begun about 1890.<sup>8</sup> In the North Central States, at least, general history was taught in most of the leading high schools during the 1880's; that decade also saw an increase there in the offerings of English and United States history.<sup>9</sup> In a few of the best schools the topical or source method, combined with organized committee work by pupils, contrasted favorably with the memoriter methods still generally prevalent.<sup>10</sup> As West has pointed out, the increased attention to history by universities between 1875 and 1890 was "filtering down" to the "fitting schools."<sup>11</sup>

Such were the general conditions of secondary school history at the beginning of the crucial decade of its development, the 1890's. In 1891, the situation seemed "fluid"—widely varying alternatives appeared to be possible of achievement. By 1900, the main organizational pattern of secondary education was set for the next half-century, or clearly foreshadowed, and the leading features of the high school history curricu-

<sup>3</sup> Alexander Johnston, *A History of the United States for Schools* . . . (New York, 1885), and Edward Eggleston, *A History of the United States and its People for the Use of Schools* (New York, 1888).

<sup>4</sup> Boston, 1885, 1886. See my article on "Mary Sheldon Barnes and the Origin of the Source Method of Teaching History in the American Secondary School," *American Heritage*, II (October, 1948), 68-72, and (December, 1948), pp. 109-112.

<sup>5</sup> Edwin D. Mead, "The Old South Historical Work," *Education*, VII (December, 1886), 249-63.

<sup>6</sup> J. W. Baldwin, "The Use of Equipment in Teaching the Social Studies—Past and Present," *The Historical Approach to Methods of Teaching the Social Studies*, Fifth Yearbook of the National Council for the Social Studies (Philadelphia, 1935), pp. 117-18. The organizer of this laboratory was A. M. Yarrington, a former student of Mary Sheldon Barnes.

<sup>7</sup> J. E. Stout, *The Development of High School Curricula in the North Central States from 1860 to 1918* (Chicago, 1921), pp. 262-78.

<sup>10</sup> See Stuart McKibben, "Outline Course of Study in History as Used in the Public Schools, Pentwater, Michigan," *Education*, X (November, 1889), 155-66.

<sup>11</sup> W. M. West, *op. cit.*, p. 648.

<sup>3</sup> G. Stanley Hall (Ed.), *Methods of Teaching and Studying History* (Boston, 1883). See pp. 23-117 of Volume II of the fifth edition of F. A. W. Diesterweg's *Wegweiser*.

<sup>4</sup> Each of the four writers (H. B. Adams, C. K. Adams, J. W. Burgess, and Ephraim Emerton) had studied in Germany in the decade 1867-1876.

lum were fixed for two decades. The former was the work of the Committee of Ten and of the Committee on College Entrance Requirements; the latter was the accomplishment of the subcommittees of those bodies, respectively the Madison Conference and the Committee of Seven.

During the critical decade there were two conflicting points of view on the proper aims and organization of secondary education. The "transoceanic" party, as their opponents dubbed them, asked how proper university specialization could be built except upon a sound general education such as that supplied by the German secondary school. They looked upon the American high school as a very imperfect part of what ought to become, with the lower college years, a well-integrated, co-ordinated system of secondary education. The opposing group emphasized the function of the high school in giving the "best equipment for living" to its students, the great majority of whom had no intention of going to college.<sup>12</sup> They did not want the high school program to become merely preparatory to college, nor to be so conducted that it should "remain a hopeless torso, if the student fails to enter college." As Benjamin Ide Wheeler put it: "The American solution . . . recognized three elements in the organization of higher [and secondary] education, viz., the secondary school, the college, the graduate school. . . . The triad system is the one likely to assert itself finally. It will leave the baccalaureate course essentially in control of the culminating course of a liberal education."<sup>13</sup>

Such was the outcome, though the problem of adjustment at the point where the high school and the college met was a continuing source of controversy. But both parties agreed on some matters. They agreed that the last two years of the eight-year elementary school belonged, of right, to the secondary school. Secondary school administrators and teachers were vexed by the

<sup>12</sup> J. Remsen Bishop, "The Future of the American High School," *Proceedings and Addresses . . . N. E. A.*, 1894 (St. Paul, Minn., 1895), pp. 788-94; James C. Mackenzie, "The Feasibility of Modifying the Programs of the Elementary and Secondary Schools to Meet the Suggestions in the Report of the Committee of Ten," *op. cit.*, pp. 143-51; see also pp. 661-69 and 164.

<sup>13</sup> For Professor Benjamin Ide Wheeler's remarks on, and President Baker's dissent from, the Report of the Committee of Ten, see *Proceedings and Addresses . . . N. E. A.*, 1894, p. 664, 645-60.

highly individualistic admission requirements of most colleges—a view which an increasing number of college leaders soon came to share. Finally, if even a partial solution to the problems of secondary education were to be found, they agreed that study and recommendations by properly representative national committees were essential.

In 1887, the direct attack upon this problem was signalized by a resolution in the National Council of Education that the appropriate committee investigate and report on the "rational selection and order of high school studies with reference to uniformity in high school work, and consequent uniformity in requirements for admission to college."<sup>14</sup> In 1891, this committee, headed by James Hutchins Baker, principal of the Denver High School, soon to become president of the University of Colorado, recommended the formation of a more representative committee to consider problems ranging from the recommendation of a good high school course to the "complete adjustment between Secondary Schools and Colleges, whether on the basis of one course, or of several courses, to the end that a good High School course may become good preparation for Colleges." Although there was some difference of opinion within the Council on the meaning and desirability of "uniformity," the question was not deeply explored at the time.<sup>15</sup> As a result, in July, 1892, the Committee of Ten was constituted, with Charles W. Eliot, president of Harvard College, as its chairman.<sup>16</sup>

At the Saratoga (1892) meeting of the N.E.A., at which he was appointed to the committee, President Eliot made crystal-clear his personal conception as to what was, and what was not, desirable uniformity in the American educational system.

I urge, then, that uniformity in schools is undesirable so far as it means uniform subjects, gait, and pace for individuals; that it is desirable so far as it means selection of all the subjects which may wisely be included in

<sup>14</sup> *Proceedings and Addresses . . . N. E. A.*, 1887 (Salem, Mass., 1888), p. 260.

<sup>15</sup> *Proceedings and Addresses . . . N. E. A.*, 1891 (New York, 1891), pp. 260, 306-323.

<sup>16</sup> *Report of the Committee on Secondary School Studies . . . U. S. Bureau of Education, Whole Number 205* (Washington, 1893), pp. 3-4. (Hereafter referred to simply as "Report, Committee of Ten.")

the successive grades, either for all pupils or for some pupils, definition of those subjects, determination of the average or ordinary time to be devoted to each subject, and prescription of the methods appropriate to each. And, finally, I believe that the most hopeful way of bringing about that desirable uniformity is through recommendations as to selection, definition, time-allotment, and method, which proceed from judicious experts acting under the sanctions of a national association like this, to be soon adopted provisionally by a few leading cities and institutions, and to be constantly improved by cooperative experimentation in many institutions and school systems, year after year, in all parts of the country.<sup>17</sup>

Almost a century before, Eli Whitney, a graduate of Yale, had applied the principle of interchangeable parts to the manufacture of muskets. In the 1890's the President of Harvard proposed to apply the same principle to secondary education. If the "grammar school" would provide educational units uniform in topics, in time spent, and in methods of teaching and testing, the high school would have a "reasonable minimum expectation of attainment" of its entering pupils. If the high school would provide its graduates with analogous identical and authenticated educational units, the college would have a similar assurance, though it might use tests of its own to make assurance doubly sure. Or, to vary the figure, each autonomous section of the educational "system" would provide its graduates with an educational coinage, guaranteed as to weight and fineness, which would be receivable at face value by the admitting officers of the next higher level. The only serious problem was to prevent counterfeiting.

It was the Committee of Ten which initiated, though it did not carry through, the process which resulted, temporarily, in a reasonable facsimile of President Eliot's kind of uniformity. Each conference, or subcommittee, was requested to consider the proper scope and time-distribution in their subject-fields for Grades 7-12, and to recommend appropriate curricula, and methods of teaching and testing. The several conferences were named in November,

1892; one of them was the Conference on History, Civil Government, and Political Economy, known more familiarly from its meeting place, as the "Madison Conference."<sup>18</sup>

The Madison Conference held six half-day sessions, and produced a report which is still worth reading. Headed by one of the pioneers of the seminar method in this country, President C. K. Adams of the University of Wisconsin, the Conference included James Harvey Robinson, A. B. Hart, Woodrow Wilson, three other college professors, and three secondary school administrators. They declared:

The result which is popularly supposed to be gained from history, and which most teachers aim to reach, is the acquirement of a body of useful facts. In our judgment this is in itself the most difficult and the least important outcome of historical instruction. . . . The chief object is the training of the judgment, in selecting the grounds of an opinion, in accumulating materials for an opinion, in putting things together, in generalizing upon facts, in estimating character, in applying the lessons of history to current events, and in accustoming children to state their conclusions in their own words.<sup>19</sup>

The Madison Conference proposed that formal "historical" study begin, in Grades 5 and 6, with biography and mythology, followed by American history and "elements of civil government" in Grade 7, and by Greek and Roman history in Grade 8. The first two high school years were to approach medieval and modern history through French and English history, American history was to appear again in Grade 11, and the last year was to be devoted to the "intensive study" of a special period or topic of history, and to civil government.<sup>20</sup> For schools

<sup>18</sup> Report, Committee of Ten, pp. 5-17, 162 ff.

<sup>19</sup> *Ibid.*, pp. 168, 170.

<sup>20</sup> In Grade 12, the time allotted to history was to be divided about equally between civil government, with bits of political economy, and the "intensive study" of a period or topic from either European or American history. Such topics as "The Influence of Greece upon Modern Life," "The French Revolution and the Napoleonic Period," "Spain in the New World," "The Territorial Expansion of the United States," "Some Considerable Phase of Local History" were suggested. The Committee argued that such a study would allow application of the "kind of training furnished by the best colleges; it will teach careful, painstaking examination and comparison of sources; it will illuminate other broader fields of history; and it will give the pupil a practical power to collect and use historical material . . ." (Report, Committee of Ten, pp. 176-177, 179-180.)

<sup>17</sup> *Proceedings and Addresses . . . N. E. A., 1892* (New York, 1893), pp. 89-95; also in *C. W. Eliot Educational Reform* (New York, 1898), pp. 273-300.

which could not devote eight years to history, the Conference recommended moving Greek and Roman history to Grade 9, and eliminating French history and "intensive study." Under this scheme, English history would bring in the major movements of medieval and modern times, and civil government would be taught with American history in high school also. The Conference recommended the topical method of teaching, and examination methods which would "require comparison and . . . judgment on the pupil's part, rather than the mere use of memory."<sup>21</sup> If their program had been followed, American schools would have had a substantial and consecutive history curriculum fifty years ago.

When the Committee of Ten looked over the reports of their several subcommittees, it was quite evident that the subject-matter specialists had designated more work as "essential" for Grades 9-12 than could possibly be taught there. The Committee was not ready to recommend free election of individual subjects, nor could it agree—nor would it have been of any use to recommend had it agreed—upon a single prescribed curriculum for all students. Instead, the Committee of Ten spent most of its second meeting in working out four "model courses," one of which a student would choose upon entering high school.<sup>22</sup> There were, however, some "constants"—subjects common to all four courses or curricula—such as four years' work in English, three in mathematics, and one each in history, physical geography, and chemistry. As most subjects were taught three or four days a week, a student usually could take simultaneously five, sometimes six, subjects for a year. Thus it was hoped, in several areas other than history, to secure the benefits of progression within a subject pursued for several years consecutively, and to abolish the "fourteen-week courses" (subjects) which had been common a few years before.<sup>23</sup>

In the discussion of the relation of their secondary school program to college admission practices, the Committee of Ten suggested that

"it would make no difference which subjects he [the student] had chosen from the programme—he would have had four years of strong and effective mental training." They remarked that a college might say: "We will accept for admission any group of studies taken from the secondary school programme, provided that the sum of the studies in each of the four years amounts to sixteen, or eighteen, or twenty periods a week . . . and provided, further, that in each year at least four of the subjects presented shall have been pursued three years or more." The Committee expressed the opinion that "the satisfactory completion of any one of the four years' courses of study . . . should admit to corresponding courses in colleges and scientific schools."<sup>24</sup>

But the Committee of Ten's *Report* provoked strong opposition, and was quite ineffective in obtaining its main objective—a fair degree of uniformity, in President Eliot's sense—in high school courses. J. H. Baker, who had taken the lead in getting the Committee formed, dissented vigorously from the Committee's acceptance of the theory of the equivalence of studies—from the implication that "the choice of studies in secondary schools may be a matter of comparative indifference, provided good training is obtained from the subjects chosen." On the other hand, Nicholas Murray Butler and G. Stanley Hall wanted the *Report* approved for the 90 per cent with which they agreed. Several influential school administrators considered the Committee's proposed courses as thoroughly impracticable. The National Council "received" the *Report*, and discharged the Committee in 1894.<sup>25</sup> Dexter's conclusion that the Committee of Ten did not markedly influence the program of studies of the public schools is almost certainly correct.<sup>26</sup>

The effort to secure the kind of uniformity for which President Eliot had argued was soon resumed under conditions which were more favorable. In July, 1895, a new committee on

<sup>21</sup> *Report, Committee of Ten*, pp. 163-65, 171, 195, 200-201.

<sup>22</sup> W. T. Harris, "The Curriculum for Secondary Schools," *Proceedings and Addresses . . . , N. E. A.*, 1894, p. 498.

<sup>23</sup> *Report, Committee of Ten*, pp. 44-50.

<sup>24</sup> *Ibid.*, pp. 52-53.

<sup>25</sup> *Proceedings and Addresses . . . , N. E. A.*, 1894, pp. 652, 658, 669.

<sup>26</sup> However, Dexter's study does not prove that the Committee of Ten did not have a short-range influence of some importance upon the social-studies (history) program. See E. G. Dexter, "Ten Years' Influence of the Committee of Ten," *School Review*, XIV (April, 1906), 254-69.

College Entrance Requirements was formed under the joint auspices of the N.E.A. departments of higher and secondary education. Under the aggressive leadership of its chairman, Dr. A. F. Nightingale, Superintendent of High Schools in Chicago, the Committee first made a detailed report on the existing admissions requirements of the colleges.<sup>27</sup> The Committee also invited leading professional organizations in several subject-fields to name committees to work out the reports on the proper scope, organization, and treatment of their subjects on the secondary level. From one of these societies, The American Historical Association, came the famous Committee of Seven, which was headed by Professor Andrew C. McLaughlin, then of the University of Michigan.

Unlike the Madison Conference, the Committee of Seven held several meetings over a period of two years, made a systematic sampling of the conditions of secondary school history teaching in the United States, and issued a report, one edition of which was reprinted nine times between 1899 and 1915.<sup>28</sup> The Committee, concerned as a group solely with the history curriculum for Grades 9-12, recommended the famous "four-block" system. In the first high school year, ancient history to 800 A.D. was to be offered, in the second year, medieval and modern European, and in the third, English history. The last year was to be devoted to United States history and civil government, preferably "studied in large measure together, as one subject." Like the Madison Conference, they condemned the one-year general history course, pointing out that it became, in practice, either a dreary memorization of so-called "essential facts" or consisted of a series of generalizations, "the foundations of which they [the pupils] cannot possibly examine."

The Committee recognized that all schools could not offer, and that all students could not take, all four of their proposed courses (subjects). Although they pointed out that the omis-

sion of any one course would leave "serious lacunae" in the student's knowledge, they thought omission preferable to compression. They did emphasize that one unit of history was insufficient in the secondary school, and held that every school should offer at least two units, although some colleges might be unable to require more than one unit for admission. Colleges should require the one unit, however, and should allow as many more as their systems of admission requirements would permit.<sup>29</sup>

In the formulation of these proposals the Committee of Seven was working within the frame of reference set forth by the Committee on College Entrance Requirements, and by their own conception of the actualities of the educational situation. It seemed to both committees obvious that the framing of secondary school programs had to be left to the schools themselves, to be determined administratively, or to be left to the pupils under whatever guidance they might have. What the committees could do was so to define the year-courses, or "units," to use the term of the Committee of Seven, that they would have a generally understood meaning, and, consequently, it was hoped, a generally accepted value for meeting college-admission requirements.

By its recommendations the Committee of Seven had taken a long step toward the realization, in the field of history, of President Eliot's ideal of interchangeable parts. As the Committee on College Entrance Requirements put it, their aim was "to set forth such a series of interchangeable units of substantially the same value as will meet with acceptance everywhere. . . . It is hoped that the courses of study [or units] laid down in this Report . . . will be adopted and used by all schools as national norms to the extent in which these studies are included in their programs. It is further hoped that all the colleges will accept toward satisfying the requirements for admission any unit of work, recommended in this report, when proof shall have been presented that the work had been well done; and that they will also give credit for any unit of advanced work."<sup>30</sup>

<sup>27</sup> Often called the Committee of Thirteen. See *Proceedings and Addresses . . . N. E. A., 1895* (St. Paul, 1895), pp. 579-80, 594-603, 636-37, and *Ibid., 1899* (Chicago, 1899), pp. 632-40.

<sup>28</sup> *The Study of History in Schools: Report to the American Historical Association by the Committee of Seven* (New York, 1899), p. 136. Hereafter referred to as "Report, Committee of Seven." References are to the Macmillan edition.

<sup>29</sup> *Report, Committee of Seven*, pp. 34-45, 122-30, 134-35.

<sup>30</sup> *Proceedings and Addresses . . . N. E. A., 1899*, pp. 656, 670-73, 648, 628; *Report, Committee of Seven*, pp. 121, 125-28.

On three points the Committee on College Entrance Requirements modified the recommendations of its subcommittee, the Committee of Seven. First, it recommended a year-course in political economy, supplemented by adequate instruction in commercial geography and industrial history. Second, although formally backing the Committee of Seven's recommendation of any and all of the four blocks, the N.E.A. committee emphasized the desirability of all secondary schools offering, and of all colleges accepting for admission, the year-course in United States history and civil government. Finally, the Committee on College Entrance Requirements recommended that colleges accept also at least one-half a year of "intensive study" of some period of history, especially of some part of American history. They argued for this addition to the Committee of Seven's blocks on the ground that such a course offered the only opportunity for the high school student to realize what "advanced study" in history meant, though such advanced work had long been recognized in languages, mathematics, and science. They added, realistically, however, that "unless this intensive study can be recognized in college admission requirements, few schools will be able to provide it."<sup>31</sup>

Some comparison of the recommendations of the Madison Conference with those of the Committee of Seven seems here in order. Of course both committees urged that well-trained teachers were necessary; at the same time both groups called for use of a textbook as basic reading, supplemented by both primary and secondary sources. Although neither favored the "source" method, the Madison Conference found a place in their larger history curriculum for "intensive study" in which primary sources were most likely to find considerable use. By recommending a minimum of three days a week each year for history, the Madison Conference made it possible for schools to offer, and for some students to take, a reasonably consecutive course (curriculum) in history. The Committee of Seven, on the other hand, practically precluded this possibility by their excessive penalization of three-day-a-week subjects. They assigned one unit for each subject studied for five

days a week for *one year*; to receive the same "credit" a three-day-a-week course would have to be taken for *two years*. The Committee of Seven did recognize the desirability even of two-day-a-week subjects "for the purpose of connecting two years in which the work is given four or five times per week, or for . . . extending the course." But they clearly disapproved of them for any other purposes, and refused to propose the "acceptance of a two-hour course in history for entrance to college."<sup>32</sup>

Within three years of the publication, in 1899, of the reports of the Committee of Seven and of the Committee on College Entrance Requirements, their major recommendations had been accepted by influential educational bodies, and had been widely applied by secondary schools. The parent N.E.A. departments, led by Presidents Swain of Indiana and Baker of Colorado, backed the proposals.<sup>33</sup> Within a few months, under the leadership of Nicholas Murray Butler, the first steps toward the actual establishment of the College Entrance Examination Board were taken. When the Board began to function in 1901, it based its examinations upon the definitions of subjects as formulated by the Committee on College Entrance Requirements and its subcommittees.<sup>34</sup> In 1902, the North Central Association began to use most of the same definitions for accrediting secondary schools.<sup>35</sup> In 1900-1901 the New England History Teachers' Association tried out the preliminary form of a syllabus for the four-block curriculum, and published it in October, 1901.<sup>36</sup> Textbook writers and publishers followed suit. Professor Tryon commented: "A textbook intended for high school use in history published between 1900 and 1915 had 'hard sledding' if it failed to claim that it conformed to the report of the Committee of Seven."<sup>37</sup>

<sup>31</sup> *Proceedings and Addresses . . . , N. E. A., 1899*, pp. 668, 660, 665-66.

<sup>32</sup> *Report, Committee of Ten*, pp. 164, 172, 176-77, 187-89; *Report, Committee of Seven*, pp. 27-29, 101-03, 109-12, 122-23.

<sup>33</sup> *Proceedings and Addresses . . . , N. E. A., 1900* (Chicago, 1900), pp. 451-54.

<sup>34</sup> *The Work of the College Entrance Examination Board, 1901-1925* (Boston, 1926), pp. 4-5, 67-69, 72-76.

<sup>35</sup> E. E. Brown, *The Making of Our Middle Schools: An Account of the Development of Secondary Education in the United States*, 2nd ed. (New York, 1905), pp. 390-91.

<sup>36</sup> *A History Syllabus for Secondary Schools, Outlining the Four Years' Course in History Recommended by the Committee of Seven of the American Historical Association* (Boston, 1901), pp. 3-4.

tee of Seven."<sup>37</sup> In fact, so immediate and so uncritical was the general reception of the report of the Committee of Seven that one of its members, Charles H. Haskins, remarked rather wryly that the Committee's "emphasis upon the desirability of uniformity in curriculum content was to be expected; what was surprising was the disposition of some people . . . to treat its proposals as something sacred and unalterable."<sup>38</sup>

Natural as was Professor Haskins' critical remark, it reveals that he did not fully appreciate the significance of the movement in which he had played so important a part. What had been at stake fundamentally in the 1890's had been the maintenance of the independence of the high school from the college, and reconciliation of that condition with the satisfactory performance of the high school's secondary function as a preparatory school. At that time, the system of interchangeable secondary school units, which was so thankfully accepted as the best way out of a bad situation, may well have been the only one which was possible, short of a reshaping of the whole of American secondary education upon the European model. That last possibility was certainly contrary to the ideals of democratic social mobility, which lay deep in the American heritage, which we embodied in our educational institutions below the college level, and which were increasingly influential in higher education. As a result of the educational movements which we have here traced, the American secondary school curriculum in history was unusually stable between 1900 and 1921. Building upon the pioneer work of the Committee of Ten and of the Madison Conference, and working within the limits of their own definite, if narrow, frame of reference, the Committee on College Entrance Requirements and the Committee of Seven probably realized their aims more completely in the social studies

field than any comparable committees in the history of American secondary education.<sup>39</sup>

In conclusion, I should be remiss not to add some comments of a more general nature which have been suggested by this study. By taking this large, yet manageable topic, we have been able to glimpse some of the broader ideas about secondary education which were influential in a critical period in the development of the secondary school. We have noted some of the assumptions which the educational leaders of the time made, and some of the objective conditions within which they worked. It was out of this combination which came the great educational compromise between European and American educational ideas and institutions at the turn of the century. Now let us look at American secondary education more recently in the light of this segment of the past.

The uniformity which had been achieved by 1900 was bound to be unstable. Within ten years the mutterings were strong that the committees of the 1890's had been too "academic" in their selection of subjects suitable for "college credit."<sup>40</sup> Within another decade, the topics and, with them, the methods within the chosen subjects themselves, were being revolutionized in the more progressive schools. By the end of four decades, an elaborate study had informed us that the particular set of subjects which a student had taken in high school did not seem to make any important difference in his relative success in college.<sup>41</sup> So it was not surprising that an increasing number of colleges paid less and less attention to what their entering students had taken in high school, and more and more to their standing relative to other students in marks, in scores in intelligence, reading, and other aptitude tests, and in evidences of outstanding capacity for "leadership." Eventually some institutions, such as the College of the University of Chicago, made entrance requirements in terms of "units" negligible, and instituted "placement tests" to determine where in their program to put the entering students. This method had the virtue of practicing what

<sup>37</sup> R. M. Tryon, *The Social Sciences as School Subjects* (New York, 1935), p. 27.

<sup>38</sup> Minutes: *Second Annual Convention of the Association of History Teachers of the Middle States and Maryland . . . 1904* (N. Y., n.d.), p. 50. All reviewers did not treat the Report with reverence. Prof. Fred M. Flings of the University of Nebraska wrote a most penetrating criticism of it, especially of its rejection of the "source method." See the *North Western Monthly*, X (September, 1899), 1-4 (erroneously paged as 459-63).

<sup>39</sup> R. M. Tryon, *op. cit.*, pp. 29-31.

<sup>40</sup> Quoted in *The Carnegie Foundation for the Advancement of Teaching: Fifth Annual Report of the President and of the Treasurer* (New York, 1910), p. 51.

<sup>41</sup> *Adventures in American Education* (New York, 1942).

is so often preached—that of relating the college program directly to the individual's actual preparation and to his probable chances of success. Thus, provision was made for taking into account individual differences within a prescribed college program of studies. But to some students who found that they had to take three years to meet the requirements for a "Chicago A.B." when a brighter or better-prepared classmate with the same number of high school "credits," might receive the same degree in two years, the new system seemed unfair. He had been brought up on a "gold standard" of educational currency, and now he found that the standard had been changed. And to the person interested in educational history it looked as if, in some respects at least, we had come "full circle," and were back in the early 1890's, when each college had set its own highly-individualistic standard for admission. To be sure, there was one significant difference; now the student was fairly readily admitted, so far as specific "units" were concerned, but he was put in his proper educational slot upon an individual basis after admission (and after it was rather late for him to go to another college). If such practices should become general, it does not require prophetic powers of a high order to foresee that, before many years, we may again have a strong demand for a greater degree of uniformity of some kind in American secondary education.

When that era arrives, it is hoped that the right questions will be asked. Let me suggest a few now, though very tentatively. How has the increasing role of publicly supported and publicly controlled institutions of collegiate grade affected the problems of relating the high school and the college parts of secondary education? Would it not be desirable for some of our stronger city systems to see what could be done with a 6-4-4 organization in which differentiation were made within a common curriculum for the first ten years, between parallel courses (curricula) in Grades 11-14? Such a reorganization would allow us to eliminate the most wasteful duplication in our educational system, and really to begin to explore the best adaptation of individual aptitudes to an education for useful citizenship in a complex society. We could substitute for the questions: "What are the proper objectives, etc. of the junior high school? Of the senior high school? Of the junior college?" the simpler and more basic questions: "What are the objectives proper to secondary education in the United States today, and what are the best practicable institutional and curricular arrangements for securing them?" Along with the sociological and psychological approaches, a serious restudy of our educational past, and a critical examination of the educational ways of other civilized peoples should help us better to answer that question.

## Taxation

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### PART II<sup>1</sup>

At the end of Part I we were discussing the effect of high income taxation upon the formation of capital. We shall begin here by drawing attention to some of the effects of our present laws.

<sup>1</sup> Part I appeared in the February, 1949, issue of THE SOCIAL STUDIES (Ed.).

It is not claimed that our income tax laws are perfect. The world has had property taxes for some thousands of years and they are still sadly inequitable. The United States has had income taxes for only thirty-five years, yet much has been learned in that comparatively brief period. One of the bad features of our past laws has been their unfairness to people having irregular

incomes. Consider two men who each make \$15,000 in three years. If one of them makes \$5000 in each year he will pay much less taxes than the other who perhaps lost money in the first two years and made it all in the third. This is obviously unfair and some provision for correction has been made, but there is still room for improvement.

Another flaw in our present system is our flat tax on corporation incomes. This not only violates the progressive principle but imposes double taxation upon stockholders. The government taxes the entire earnings of the corporation before dividends are paid and again taxes the dividends after they are paid out. The stockholder in the low brackets pays several times as much tax on his income (as determined by the earnings of his stock) as he would pay if an equal amount of income came from any other source. On the other hand, the very wealthy stockholder gains by this process because he pays less taxes on the earnings left in the business than he would if they were paid to him.

To correct this difficulty there should be no tax on corporate earnings unless they are not distributed to the stockholders. This was tried in 1936-1937, but met with so much opposition from influential businessmen that the law was repealed. In spite of their continual complaints about business being punished by taxation wealthy businessmen prefer a flat tax on corporate earnings to the higher bracket rates on personal income. The protest against the undistributed profits tax was occasioned more by a desire for tax avoidance than by any concern over the needs of business. This is apparent because this tax really conforms to conservative theory. It allows the stockholder freedom to do as he pleases with his own money and it requires that the reinvestment of profits meet "the test of the market." By "the test of the market" we mean that in order to secure more money the corporation would have to offer its securities for sale to the general public. If they can be sold, it is a good indication that the project under consideration is desirable. More of the money would probably go into new and small businesses. The tax on undistributed profits, with an exemption for small businesses, is beneficial to small business. The retention of

earnings favors the larger, well-established firms.

Conservative theorists have often argued that governmental expenditure is unwise because it does not have to meet the test of the market. That is, that many things will be done, such as the building of bridges, buildings, etc., that are useless. Yet the withholding of earnings permits boards of directors to spend the money without meeting this test. The result is often unsound expansion. At the end of every boom it is evident that productive capacity has been overbuilt—that production has gotten ahead of consumption. The stock market itself does not pay a premium for withheld earnings. Of two stocks otherwise equal and enjoying the same earnings per share, the one paying the higher dividend sells for the higher price. It is very probable that corporations would find their common stocks easier to sell if they paid out a larger part of their earnings in dividends. While the law of 1936-1937 may have had its bad points, these could be corrected in a new bill. We should depend for our revenue upon personal income.

Another argument against income taxes is that they stir up class hatred. The world had plenty of implacable class hatred long before it had graduated income taxes. The American, French, and Russian Revolutions were not due to any such thing. If any governments have been overthrown on account of heavy taxation, it was because of the opposite kind of taxes.

An excellent feature of the graduated income tax is that it adjusts itself automatically to business conditions. As incomes rise and fall so do the taxes. If we use deficit spending as a means of overcoming depression, then we must reduce the debt in times of prosperity. As prosperity increases, the tax yield will increase even faster and the government will have a surplus with which to take up its bonds. The automatic feature will not be sufficient to meet all cases. In that event adjustment should first be made by changing the exemptions. They could be increased as incomes go down. Changes in the rates should be a last resort.

If it is apparent that business is really suffering from lack of capital, which will rarely be the case, the rates could be lowered. If it is apparent that idle money is piling up, the rates

must be raised. This would be something for the Council of Economic Advisers to determine.

So far we have discussed mostly income taxes. Before going on to other forms, it is well to point out that all taxes—whatever they may be called—must be paid out of income, past, present, or future. If perchance we pay taxes out of our capital, the capital came from past income. If we are forced to borrow money to pay our taxes the loan must be repaid out of future income. It is the progressive feature of nearly all income taxes that distinguishes them.

There are in the United States 175,000 taxing jurisdictions and they employ at least fifteen kinds of taxes in obtaining their revenue; corporation income, personal income, gross income, inheritances, real estate, personal property, retail sales, and manufacturers' sales are all levied upon. In addition we have protective tariffs, poll taxes, excise taxes, occupation taxes, and various licenses and stamp taxes. Due to geographical overlapping and the multiplicity of levies our whole system is very confusing. Simplification is almost mandatory, but before making any suggestions along that line we will more or less briefly discuss the other forms.

Inheritance taxes alone share the progressive feature with income taxes. They are in fact deferred taxes on income. They might be, if not more popular, at least less resented than income taxes, and more justifiable. A man does not care so much what happens to his property after he dies as what happens during his life. They should be the least burdensome of all taxes because once it became an established practice that estates would be largely taken by the government, the heirs would expect little and would not feel the loss. "Where there has been no hope there can be no despair."

The democratic principle of equal opportunity is violated by some young people beginning with a sizable fortune and others with nothing. Young people having healthy and husky bodies, a good education, and a modicum of the acquisitive instinct can safely be put on their own in the kind of society we would like to have. Even the most ardent advocates of this kind of taxation agree dependents must be taken care of. In considering taxation personal incomes

and inheritances can be closely bracketed together.

The oldest and most widely used form of all taxes are those upon property. They are still the chief mainstay of our lower political subdivisions. States have largely gotten away from them. The heart of the system of property taxation is assessment. The notorious inequity and iniquity of assessment have engendered much of the resentment against all taxation. A fundamental tenet of tax policy is that all persons in the same economic circumstances be treated impartially. As to the question of justice between classes, this must be subservient to the general welfare. The preamble says that the Constitution was adopted to promote the general welfare—if this is not done the Constitution is "torn to shreds." *The general welfare is at once the purpose of government and the measure of justice.* Taxation is not so much a matter of meticulous justice between classes as it is a matter of making our economic system work and continue to work. The people have learned that depressions are not acts of God. They are under human control. No system can be considered just that permits an unreasonable amount of unemployment. After all "soaking the rich" is not so very much worse than soaking the poor as taxation did for several thousand years prior to the advent of the progressive principle.

The assessment of personal (movable) property is even worse than that of real estate.

In other countries, real estate taxation is rapidly being abandoned and if used is based upon the income from the property. It has lasted long in this country because in the early days it was more equitable and state constitutions (very difficult of amendment) often prescribed it for the cities, counties, etc., and because the American people believe so strongly in local government. Other forms of taxes are not so applicable to small areas. Real estate taxes may always be necessary to pay for local improvements, such as city pavements, drainage, etc. but these fall more into the category of investments rather than taxes.

The single tax plan of Henry George caused a great deal of political excitement during the 1880's and 1890's but has never been widely tried. It was a levy upon the unimproved value

of land. No improvements made by the present or previous owners were to be taxed, but the increase in value of the land due to the building up of the community around it was to be. This was called the unearned increment and, as it came from the activities of the whole society, it was held the benefit should go to the government. The entire rental value of the unimproved land was to be taken in taxes. This amounted to government ownership, but the government always stood ready to lease the land to the highest bidder and give sufficiently long leases so that substantial improvements could be made without danger of loss.

This tax is used in Australia, but only a very small part of the entire revenue is raised in this way and it has been found very difficult to administer. The city of Pittsburgh also uses the plan to some extent. The idea is to curb speculation in land and to prevent the land from being held out of use by exorbitant sale price or rental value.

The plan was more justified in the old days when many people had acquired the raw land at very little cost, but after many sales and resales the unearned increment has been paid for by the present owners and it would not be fair to deprive them of their property. But the tax does have strong points in its favor and it might be well to begin a gradual reduction in the assessment of improvements and a like increase in the assessment of the unimproved value of the land.

Other old, respected and important forms of taxation are the customs duties and excise taxes of the federal government. At times these have been the sole source of revenue. They are in effect sales taxes and are especially obnoxious because they are hidden—the customer may have a vague knowledge of their existence but does not know exactly upon what articles or how much he is paying. Excise taxes are those levied upon specific commodities and have generally been paid by the manufacturer, although during the recent war they were greatly extended and collected by the retailer. In the past they have fallen mostly upon liquor, tobacco, narcotics, patent medicines, and oleomargarine. Just why oleo should be put in the same class as these other things is a little difficult to understand. In these instances they are also known

as sumptuary taxes because one of the purposes is to lessen the consumption of these particular things. Just how effective they have been in accomplishing this purpose is highly debatable. Able authorities appear on both sides.

A newer excise tax is that upon gasoline. It originated in Oregon in 1919 but spread rapidly and is now in effect over the entire country. The proceeds are used mostly for the building and maintenance of highways.

A comparatively recent development in revenue raising in this country is the advent of the retail sales tax. Curiously enough it was depression born. This tax cannot be said in itself to actually cause or prolong a depression, but progressive taxes in the higher brackets do have a curative effect and could have been used just as well. Taxes used by the government for all purposes other than paying off indebtedness held by the banks do not decrease the over-all amount of business being done in the country. It is often charged that taxes taken from the citizen prevent him from spending the money and thereby hurt business. It is true that in the case of small incomes the particular citizen from whom the money is taken will not spend it, but the government immediately puts it back into circulation. Government employees from street sweepers to senators must live just as much as other people. Business as a whole is not injured by the process. In the case of large incomes, wealthy people are spending all that they wish to anyway. Their surplus money is probably (in time of depression) going into hoards and if taken by the government and spent will increase business activity. As stated above, \$10 billion had piled up by 1940. At the very beginning of the depression income taxes were reduced and tariff duties raised, and the depression got worse. It would have been much better had the customs been lowered and the income taxes in the higher brackets raised.

The sales tax is regressive—it falls most heavily on the poorer people who must spend their entire incomes upon the necessities of life. It reduces the amount of money they have to spend for these necessities, thereby reduces their ability to work and thus violates the principle that taxes should not tend to lessen production. No one yet has been made destitute by the imposition of an income tax, but the

sales tax is based on the *necessity to consume* and says to you, "Pay a tax on food, or starve; pay a tax on clothes, or go naked; pay a tax on fuel, or freeze; pay a tax on medicine, or you may die." Millions of homes and farms have been lost through inability to pay property taxes.

The sales tax is often justified on the ground that only those who pay taxes take any interest in the affairs of government. If citizens pay a tax they will vote for legislators who will be careful in spending the public's money. It was the adoption of the sales tax by Mississippi during the depression that set the pattern that many other states soon followed. But in Mississippi 50 per cent of the adults do not vote and have no influence in government and they are the people whom this tax hurts the most. Mississippi did not pass its sales tax with any idea of stirring up interest in government among its poorer people. Legislators are apt to be even more free with sales tax money than with income tax money.

Taxes on consumption reached their highest point of use in the days of the divine right of kings. Spain had a sales tax for 600 years and look at her now.

The gross income tax is a sales tax although it has the big advantage that exemptions can be allowed. The taxpayers must however make written reports. It is used in Indiana in lieu of a retail sales tax.

The only way that a retail sales tax could be made really progressive would be for each taxpayer to make a report similar to the income tax report. It would be much more difficult to check and administer than the income tax and would probably cause even greater resentment. The average person would prefer to tell where his income comes from than to say where it goes. The spending of your money is more of a personal matter than the receiving of a pay check. The best suggestions made along this line are given in a little book called, *A Dynamic Capitalism*, by C. W. Hazelett. The author proposes that we have only two taxes, a graduated sales tax with exemptions, accompanied by a tax on idle money. While a tax on idle money might be the ideal tax there are so many loopholes of escape from it that so far, it has been found impossible to draw up a workable

measure. Mr. Hazelett presented his ideas to the proper committee of the U. S. Senate, but the members were apparently not favorably impressed. There was almost no public discussion of the plan.

In recent years we have heard a great deal of the poll tax as a means of keeping Negroes from voting. Used for such a purpose it violates all the canons of democracy, but it may not be as important as is widely believed. If there is real determination, Negroes can be kept from voting in other ways. For instance, there was the grandfather law. A man could not vote unless his grandfather had been permitted to do so. It is assumed that the grandfather lived before 1865. As times goes on we may get a great-grandfather law.

It is apparent that our tax system needs a complete overhauling in the interest of simplicity and unification. The many jurisdictions and kinds of taxes give rise to confusion, inequity and additional cost of collection. The principle of states' rights has been defended on the ground that our several states experiment in different ways of handling various matters and the whole country receives the benefit. After experimenting for 160 years some things should be fairly clear. The country would be better off with uniform marriage and divorce laws, uniform laws governing the practice of the professions, uniform traffic laws, and a much more uniform system of taxation.

As other forms gradually disappear, the importance of income, inheritance, and sales taxes is correspondingly increasing. The big political fight looming up is between the progressive (income) and regressive (sales) principles. Taxation is of increasing importance because of the idea of using it as a stabilizer of business and also because of the size of the national debt.

A large internally held national debt is dangerous mainly as it sets up quarrels as to who is to pay the taxes to meet the interest and payments on the principal. England ended the Napoleonic wars with a debt much bigger in proportion to the national income than ours is at the present time. For nearly 100 years she employed a system of regressive taxes. The country grew rich and powerful, but a sizable part of the population was kept in abject poverty. Male suffrage did not become universal

until there taxation greatly English Afterment duties off in our ap the G protes regres upon and e tobacco with t ing th has b fashion of our A s years the d was r reviv declar ment 1913 Pro distri tenti up wi less to stabili tainin It wo lation cation group popul earn, In draft service per co stren upon of o jectio physi

until rather late in the 1800's. Around 1910 there was an abrupt change in the method of taxation, income taxes and death duties being greatly increased. This has been called the English New Deal.

After our own Civil War the federal government depended almost entirely upon custom duties for its revenue and the war debt was paid off in that way. It was during this period that our agrarian revolt took place, giving rise to the Greenback, Populist and other parties of protest. As we have seen, tariffs are in effect regressive sales taxes. They bore more heavily upon the South which was largely agricultural and exported a great deal of its cotton and tobacco, buying protected manufactured goods with the proceeds. This was one way of punishing the South for its rebellion. As Mississippi has been criticised for making the sales tax fashionable, it is only fair to mention this phase of our history.

A small income tax had been used for a few years during the Civil War. It was not until the depression of the 1890's that an attempt was made by the Cleveland administration to revive the income tax. This time the Court declared it to be unconstitutional. An amendment was ratified about twenty years later and 1913 saw the beginning of our present system.

Progressive taxes tend to bring about a wider distribution of wealth. The conservative contention that this would mean simply dividing up what we have and would result in having less to divide, is utterly false. It would tend to stabilize business at a high level, thus maintaining full employment and large production. It would do this by keeping money in circulation. And money spent in improving the education, skills, physique etc. of our substandard groups (who are a fairly large part of our population), would eventually enable them to earn, or produce, more.

In World War II, over 40 per cent of our draftees were rejected as unfit for military service—25 per cent in the richest states, 55 per cent in the poorest states. Even our military strength as a nation depends to a large extent upon the ruggedness, intelligence, and education of our young people. Concerning these rejections General Hershey has said: "We are physically in a condition of which nationally we

should be thoroughly ashamed." The strength of a country depends upon its manpower (numbers, physique, and skills) and upon its natural resources. Money can be created if necessary. To the United States government anything that is physically possible is financially possible. The war proved that. The maintenance of full employment is physically possible. If financial considerations prevent private enterprise from accomplishing it, why not turn to the government for assistance?

Even our conservative friends will admit that it would be better for the government to provide the substandard groups with better health, housing, recreational, and educational facilities than to pay them higher wages. It has long been contended by employers that if these folks were paid more, they would either work fewer hours or spend the additional money in ways injurious to themselves. But again the conservatives do not wish to do either.

Concentration of wealth acts much as the concentration of logs in a river. When it becomes too great, it stops the flow entirely. Sometimes it takes dynamite to break the jam.

With all our strikes and labor disputes, it would seem that we have approached our labor problem from the wrong angle. In the past we have identified labor with the lowest income groups. This is certainly no longer true in all cases. Organized labor and the poor are not equivalent classes. We should improve the condition of our lowest income groups whether we find them as laborers, share croppers, small businessmen or what have you. Just what organized labor would consider as a fair distribution of wealth is hard to say, but the recent plan of making wages conform to the cost of living does not display a desire to grab everything. It may be asked, how far should we go in a wider distribution of wealth. It can just as well be asked, how far should we go in the concentration of wealth. The American people should decide what kind of income distribution they want. For instance, do we want a spread of 10 to 1 between the highest and lowest incomes or a spread of 2,000 to 1, after taxes? There is much room for improvement without going communistic.

The government would be in a much stronger position to deal with the unions if everyone were

given the opportunity of earning a minimum decent standard of living. Born and brought up under substandard conditions, too many people at present are denied that equality of opportunity which democracy is supposed to insure.

We come now to making a few suggestions for improvement in our system of taxation. Considering the need for simplification and unification we should reduce both the number of our taxing jurisdictions and the kinds of taxes. There is a trend toward state governments giving aid to the lower subdivisions and toward national government giving aid to the states. These "grants in aid" should be encouraged and extended and should not be dependent upon the states matching the money granted. The poorer states cannot do so. The grants should be given in direct proportion to the population of the states and in inverse proportion to their per capita wealth. In the case of highways, density of population of the area aided should also be considered.

Many of our taxing jurisdictions are small school districts. There is a decided trend toward consolidation of these districts and toward county administration of the schools. In one case—Florida—the amount of state aid given to county schools increased from 8 per cent in 1920 to 61 per cent in 1940. It would be possible for our federal government to take over the financing of our entire educational system, giving the money to the state governments to be subdivided and administered as they wished.

Children are not born of their own volition, and every child in this country is entitled to a good education. Otherwise, he does not get his equality of opportunity. There has been a measure before Congress for several years providing for at least a beginning in aid to education for the poorer states, but it has so far failed of passage. The great difference in per capita income among our several states may not be generally known. In 1946 the people of New York had an average of \$1,633 and the people of Mississippi had \$555.

The contention is that if the money comes from Washington, Washington will control the schools, but this is without foundation. Objectors admit that there is nothing in the present bill before Congress to justify their

claim, but they are afraid that something might happen in the future. The states are not compelled to take the money and if any odious strings are attached, it can be refused. Collection of taxes can be central and the spending local.

The late Professor H. C. Simons of the University of Chicago took the position that: "The only promising solution of the tax problem lies in a generous sharing of federal revenues from personal income taxes with the states." In Republican Germany, the revenue of the central government was shared to a considerable extent with the political subdivisions. In Australia, the income tax laws of the states are practically identical with that of the Commonwealth and payments are made to the same collector. It is some such system as this that can be highly recommended. If we depend almost entirely for all revenue—federal, state, and local—upon levies on personal income and inheritances paid at the same time to the same agency, most of our confusion would be removed. It will probably be necessary or desirable to retain some real estate taxes, the tax on gasoline, and some sumptuary taxes, as on liquor and tobacco; but all personal property taxes, poll taxes, retail sales taxes, and most excises and customs duties should be abandoned.

Taxation is a two-way street. We must consider first the effect of getting the money and then the effect of spending it. Many a man who believes that he is staggering along under a load of taxes might feel greatly relieved if he only realized that if the government were not spending money, he himself might not be earning money. With this in mind we can now offer our own maxims,

1. Taxes should conform to the progressive principle.
2. They should be sufficient to provide for full employment.
3. Government should be careful to spend for those goods and services which people need and desire most.
4. Government should receive a full dollar's worth for every dollar spent, although in times of deep depression (which should never be allowed to develop) it is better to spend money somewhat wastefully than not to spend it at all.

A full observance of these rules would make another statement of Justice Holmes that "Taxes are a pleasure, not a burden," seem more reasonable. This plan for controlling the fluctuations of business activity is suggested as an alternative to more unacceptable methods, such as, control of wages and prices, rationing, public ownership of basic industries, etc. It is not intended that it be introduced overnight. All great changes should come gradually, but should be made while there is yet time. We should not wait for a business collapse to incite us to action as has happened in the past.

The Council of Economic Advisers has said: "The enlarging production of an industrially efficient nation must go increasingly to filling in consumption deficiencies of the erstwhile poor." Congress has so far paid little attention to its recommendations, but this attitude will almost certainly change when a real depression sets in. The war brought us out of the Great Depression

into full employment, but it was not the war itself that did so—it was the government spending occasioned by the war. Expenditures on highways, flood control systems, hospitals, slum clearance, education, old age pensions, etc., would have had the same effect as spending for instruments of destruction. (This does not imply that our entrance into the war was unwise.) It is the expressed opinion of many well-informed people that no administration will ever again permit economic conditions to develop as they did in the early 1930's.

In the opinion of Professor H. M. Groves: "If democratic government in the United States is to give way to some totalitarian regime, the refusal of the American people to tax themselves adequately and intelligently will probably be an important cause of the tragedy."

Maybe this is the way to "make democracy live."

## Geography and the Geographer's Sphere

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### INTRODUCTION

Geography, like other fields of endeavor, has undergone numerous and distinct changes. In a changing world there necessarily come changing values; outmoded materials are discarded as new ideas and new patterns appear. Hence, it occasionally becomes necessary to analyze the situation—to make an inventory in order to determine what materials are obsolete, which are currently basic, and which appear on new horizons. Surveys also become pertinent as assurance against tangential deviations. In the quest for the new, there is the danger of accepting divergencies *in toto* with little consideration; there is similar tendency to delete long-used materials for fear of archaic semblance or of nonprofessional tincture.

Some analysis of the field also seems appropriate in order that the non-geographic groups

may be more informed on the subject matter as treated today. Apparently a particular weakness in geography has been the failure to inform the masses as to the content of the program. Even among geographers the treatment becomes lacking in clarity of purpose and in definiteness of statement. Then what are basic facts in geography today, what the substance emphasized, and what the ingress on new horizons?

### SAILOR GEOGRAPHY

Geography once was chiefly concerned with the location of places and things upon the earth. In early history there was significant value in obtaining knowledge of the earth—discovering places, learning how to reach them, and how to return. In the pre-discovery age, the knowledge of America's existence would have been important, and of like significance to know how to

reach it and to return to Europe. Today such information remains indispensable—the modern world could not function without it. Likewise, the individual without a working knowledge of place is in geographic darkness. But it seems trite to suggest that this information should be accepted merely as a tool in the treatment of the subject. Nevertheless, a large percentage of our population comprehend geography in just such terms—in the age-of-discovery geography.

In America, more than in any other leading country, one of the great tasks in geography is that of lifting the masses of society out of the doldrums of this sailor geography complex. A commonly expressed feeling even among educators is that the geographer is in a sort of dilemma concerning the rapidly changing world. Any suggestion to the contrary brings amazement. If the geographer accepted as major interests the details of political divisions, the alteration of landmarks by bombings, the rote memorizing of place names, and the change of the numerous -burg's to -ski's, the complexities of numerous imaginations would soon be realized. But the geographer long since turned his chief efforts to more significant criteria, for he has concluded that the major facts of geography are not so fickle—that many geographic phenomena are similar to activity in Alsace, where, under German domination, goose liver, the most famous export, is marketed in sliced form; with Alsace returned to France, the product retains its significance, the chief difference being that it is delivered *pâté de foie gras*. The geographer usually is content to treat the industry, with an explanation of its existence, and leave to other fields the pleasure of depicting the form in which the product is delivered.

Place geography presents far more substance than is ordinarily ascribed to it. Knowing a certain place is one thing; knowing the human interests and activities associated with the place may be, and often is, far more important. Knowing that Chicago is a city on Lake Michigan is one thing, but knowing that the city is our second largest urban center, that it is the world's greatest railroad center, that it is the world's greatest livestock market and meat packing center, and that it is the home of the world's greatest mail order house, as well as numerous

other developments of magnitude, are of far greater import. Mere association adds much to place names. Detroit—automobiles, Yakima—apples, Aroostook—potatoes, Pittsburgh—steel, are illustrations of this value. Familiarity with places cultivates such meaningful associations. As with historic characters, automatic associations come with the mention of Rome, Thermopylae, Nile, Klondike, Hollywood, Reno, Okinawa.

Place relationship provides another angle of enrichment. Area, population, distance, volume, and the like mean little except in terms of relativity. Australia's 2,900,000 square miles mean little as an isolated fact, but the fact becomes meaningful when compared with the 3,000,000 square miles of the United States. Similarly Canada's 12,000,000 inhabitants compare well with New York State's 13,000,000; Tokyo's population normally ranks between that of New York and Chicago; and the latitude of southern Argentina is the same as that of southernmost Alaska.

This point may be projected to include conditions of locational sites. A particular problem of Los Angeles is that of obtaining a water supply; a problem equally great with New Orleans is that of water disposal. Since the Ohio-Mississippi River towns are so subjected to flood, there should be worth-while associations which may be presented about these places as contrasted with cities on the St. Lawrence, where floods do not occur. If, as has been averred, no place of the earth is more than sixty hours from your nearest airport, the possibility of distant travel suggests the necessity of information as to landing fields, tourist accommodations, and the like, in the most remote parts. Knowledge of intermediate places also would be a convenience in case of forced landing.

#### ADAPTATIVE GEOGRAPHY

For long the geographer has been concerned with man-environment relationships. Treatment of the field has varied considerably in point of view, however. Only a few decades ago some referred to environment as being directive in nature and determinative of all human activity and welfare. Such an idea has been largely cast aside. Opinion now accepts environment as consisting of certain conditions that remain as something of a passive factor—that it exerts no

great compulsion on either the individual or the nation. On the other hand, it does present and limit opportunity: makes it possible for human effort to be productive in some things, while in others, the same effort could result only in failure. In what is termed favorable environment, man can and does make varied accomplishments, but thus far in civilization he has met with total defeat, or at least very scant success, in numerous areas of unfavorable environment.

In this process, man is an independent creature—he exercises his will in the acceptance or rejection of the environmental opportunity. But perhaps no human being could be found who entirely ignores these phenomena. Even the lower animals do much in the way of accepting, and to some extent modifying, their habitats, as may be observed in the homing of the forest squirrel as contrasted to that of the prairie squirrel. A particular difference between man and the lower animals is found in man's greater discretion in the utilization of his environment. And further, a particular mark of human advancement, which rivals or exceeds election of environmental opportunity, lies in man's success at modifying these conditions to suit his needs more thoroughly.

From the dawn of history a chief concern of mankind has been the alignment of effort with respect to environmental conditions. The Egyptians developed a practice of planting their crops after the annual Nile floods had supplied moisture to the dry valley lands, but the Babylonians, deprived of this gift of nature, diverted the life-giving waters of their rivers onto their parched fields. The medieval baron selected his productive lands for cultivation, but placed his castle in a naturally-protected place or in a region where a great moat might be girded about it. The occupation of semi-arid grasslands by a nomadic people and the utilization of the humid, productive plainslands by about 90 per cent of the earth's inhabitants have followed the same course.

It is not the fortune of accident but the result of commonplace, judicious procedure which has been followed in utilizing the humid sub-tropical lands for cotton, the intermediate prairie lands for wheat, lands with Mediterranean climate for fruits and grapes, and the humid low latitudes for sugar cane, coffee, and cacao. Simi-

larly, it has been election of opportunity that has led to the establishment of great industrial centers at loci convenient to sources of powers, many of the woodworking industries at vantage points near the forests, and a large percentage of the great commercial cities on harbors accessible to ocean transport.

Another objective of similar concern has been that of searching out environment in which effort might become more and more remunerative. The historian traces step by step the great nomadic invasions from interior Asia eastward to the heart of the loessial plains of China and westward to the gates of Orleans. In these processes the ramifications are varied, the facts numerous, but one basic thread—nomadic hunger—ties all together. The land of Khan luxuries, on the one hand, and that of Hanseatic accumulations, on the other, were areas in which, it was hoped, this desire could be satisfied. In references to New World colonization the orator of today enthralls his listeners by emphasis upon virtues, principles, and liberties, but in the age of inception, the English writers seemed to have a better grasp of human qualities when they played upon such terms as gold, rubies, diamonds, and viands.

#### INTERACTIVE GEOGRAPHY

If one chose to ignore the perils of trampling somewhat on established practices, the higher strata of anthropo-geo relations may be designated interactive geography. While no sharp line of cleavage separates these criteria from adaptative geography, the inference here is that the field includes phenomena beyond that ordinarily ascribed to environmental adaptation. In its simple treatment, adaptative geography more often refers to the human acceptance of prevailing conditions in a respective environment—something of a one-sided activity in which man attempts to harmonize his efforts to suit existing conditions. Much emphasis is placed on the perceptible, natural factors. Temperature, rainfall, soil, slope, and accessibility rank high in this consideration. Interactive geography, as here intended, projects the field further to include the work of reactive agents as well as environmental entities, at least partially non-existent. Proper alignment of the anthropo-geo relations, then, requires not only discretion in applying the human factor, but

proper evaluation of resultants from the retroactive environmental factors as well.

In this process the resultants may be either good or bad, depending upon the character of place or method of procedure. Ingenuity in drainage practices by the Dutch, in conjunction with the soil-forming work of natural agents, changed the water-logged polderlands into mellow, productive soils. Forest plantings in the encroaching sands of the Landes in France not only checked the advancing menace, but turned the immediate area into an attractive and productive borderland. Conversely, the interactiveness which enabled the early Egyptians to survive has been much altered by the impoundment of waters, from which the fertile alluviums are deposited in the reservoirs, instead of being carried to the fields as formerly. In southwest Africa, the destruction of the tsetse fly led to the destruction of the natural vegetation and erosion which left the land in worse plight than when infested by the dreaded insect. In our own country, forest removal, followed by recurrent fires and subsequent erosion, has left certain Appalachian lands in all but a hopeless condition. Similarly, overgrazing and cultivation in the western dry lands have resulted in relegating vast acreage to the "dust bowl."

Work in urban developments and other activities likewise has been varied as to outcome. Many of our oldest established towns, from penurious opportunity, remain among the smallest of the country or have ceased to function; others favorably placed have become blighted by outgrown, narrow, crooked streets and ill-placed industry. Ordinarily, man eventually corrects such malpractices, but more often at staggering waste of effort and expense. Conversely, many of our newer urban centers stand in bold contrast to these decrepits. They were planned rather than built. The bases are well drained, healthful, and free from flood. Railway and highway approaches are without obstacles. The entire artifacts, as it were, stand as attractive and practicable commentaries on modern achievement.

#### APPLIED GEOGRAPHY

The particular objective in human activity is that of securing desired resultants. And maximum achievement obviously can be obtained only through perfect coordination of the forces

involved. The proper discipline of these interactive agencies, that is, the meticulous arrangement of the anthropo-geo factors, apparently should become the geographer's highest plane of usefulness. This procedure would merely bring together into working order the various phases of the geographic realm previously treated. The particular advantages of applied geography over the adaptative, as here intended, is that it implies more extended planning and manipulation of the interactive agencies to suit human needs rather than the direction of human acts to harmonize with prevailing environmental conditions, as is more nearly true in the adaptative category. It also implies the dire need of a more vigorous and expansive program in the application of scientific knowledge to man-environment interrelations, rather than leaving the solution of this gigantic problem to the "ravages of haphazard effort and the peril of political propagandists."

That there is particular need of applied geography seems unquestionable. Planning in accordance with environmental entities is mandatory if the waste through evolutionary channels to adjustment is to be avoided. Proper procedure in the building of cities and in the utilization of regions, with respect to immediate and future needs, in so far as can be discerned, would eliminate much of this waste, in many cases practically all of it. Without this attempt at the scientific approach, that is, the application of local, regional, and even interregional consideration, cities will continue to be "built" instead of planned, and economic regionalism will degenerate (now well on the road) into the category of economic nationalism.

Although people everywhere tend eventually to arrive at a fair degree of adjustment, too often the paths of approach are too contorted and uneconomical for acceptance in the modern world. The earth falls short in being a perfect home for man. Then a particular necessity is that of selecting, modifying, coordinating. The paths to these goals of accomplishment perhaps are as vague to the masses as are those in the fields of dentistry and medicine, a situation largely self-explanatory with respect to needs for guidance in this field of applied effort.

Parenthetically, some progress has been made in the utilization of geographical knowledge for

such work. The TVA utilized the work of numerous geographers, not in recognition of a profession, but because the individuals produced what was desired. Our government, in this respect trailing far behind some others, drew into the recent war work some 200 of these specialists. A number of them remain in this service. Perhaps any city, where at all convenient, could well afford to include a geographer on its planning board. Some of the larger cities have utilized this source of assistance, but the smaller cities and towns in general apparently do not recognize such a need.

#### THE GEOGRAPHY FINITE

The finite in the geographic realm implies perfection in the utilization of earth entities with respect to human needs. Acquisition of this goal, however, seems improbable or even impossible, due to the complexity of a constantly changing situation and to the extreme task of disseminating knowledge and practices to all parts of the earth. Difficulty of attainment in this respect is indicated by man's delayed concept of the earth body. The period of written history has been almost entirely consumed in expanding the horizon of geography from the narrowly restricted environment of the primeval stage to the rounding out of a two-dimensional earth-space. From the heady drafts of

the Greek classicists were salvaged the hypotheses of the earth's sphericity. Renaissance scholars absorbed and charted the information, but not until the present century was the idea brought into fact realization.

That attainment in the interactive workings of the anthropo-geo factors is less complicated than the acquisition concerning earth-space seems doubtful—this, even though the earth realm were static. But the enormity of the task is enhanced by the constantly changing relational complex. So the geographer need not, like Alexander the Great, sigh for more horizons to conquer. The introduction of a new machine or the adoption of a new method makes necessary the reorientation of human affairs. But before the idea is carried to remote parts, it is outmoded by new concepts. New horizons appear. So, to revive an old ditty, "the music goes 'round and 'round." The end is not yet. One step is achieved; other problems are created for solution, but each forward step brings attainment in the human-environmental realm farther along the road to perfection. Though the finite goal lies well beyond the most remote horizon, progress in the desired direction is thereby made none the less significant. Therefore, effort in achieving this goal should not be stifled. Therein lies the hope of human progress.

## The Quintessence of Conjecture

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The *Principles of Human Geography* by Ellsworth Huntington is a solidly and comprehensively conceived work. The author has taken considerable pains to relieve the heavy scholarship embodied in the book by homely asides based on his own experiences and observations of natural phenomena. Can there be anything more heartwarming than the efforts of a respected scholar to bring his learning down to the student's level? In this case, Mr. Huntington's personal observations and speculations have the added charm of relieving erudition with a graceful sententiousness all his own. We quote from his volume:<sup>1</sup>

1. If the earth were altered in shape even a little, if it rotated or revolved more slowly, or if it were composed of different materials, the development of plants, animals, and man would have been correspondingly altered. (p. 27)
2. Think how different life would be if there were no such thing as the year, month, and day, or even if we had no way of knowing

<sup>1</sup> Reprinted by permission from *Principles of Human Geography* by Ellsworth Huntington, published by John Wiley and Sons, Inc., New York City.

the hour of the day. How could people meet at the right place for business, study, or recreation without wasting hours because some come early and some late? How could trains maintain any kind of schedule? Of what use would the radio be if no one knew when a program would be put on? (p. 30)

3. Without the seasons mankind might never have become civilized. (p. 46)
4. If the earth did not rotate, a single day and night would last a year. (p. 71)
5. If the ocean stood 600 feet lower than now . . . the continents would be much larger; their climates would be more continental and hence more extreme, less healthful, and less favorable for crops; and the deserts of the interior would be enlarged. (p. 117)
6. Now we begin to see why most of Asia . . . is crossed only by one railroad from east to west and none from north to south. If the relief of the continent were different—if it sloped gently upward to a high plateau in the north central part—millions of square miles which are now almost uninhabited because of dryness, ruggedness, or low temperature would be as productive as the plains of our west. (p. 173)
7. If Asia stood a few thousand feet higher all these islands [the Philippines, Borneo, Sumatra, Java and Celebes] would be seen as parts of high mountain chains surrounding basins and plateaus like those of the great triangle of inner Asia. (p. 174)
8. If all the lakes in the world should dry up within a single year they would supply only one-fifteenth of the rain that falls each year on the lands. (p. 231)
9. If there were no oceans, all parts of the United States would have extremes [in temperatures] much greater than those of Bismarck [North Dakota]; the summers would be unbearably hot and the winters unbearably cold. It is well that the continents are surrounded by great oceans. (p. 232)
10. Transportation on the ocean would be as difficult without harbors as railway traffic would be without stations and freight yards. (p. 244)
11. Everywhere for nearly 2,000 miles the Yangtze flows through a region full of in-

dustrious people. Hence its hinterland would be one of the best if only the people were not so poor. (p. 265)

12. If no mountain building [on the earth's surface] had ever taken place the heavier minerals would probably now be almost entirely buried far beyond our reach. (p. 298)
13. If there were no such thing as war, and if all nations were equally free to trade everywhere, there would be no trouble. (p. 315)
14. Old Germany had plenty of coal and France plenty of iron. If they had been friends, their combination of coal and iron would have been admirable. . . . (p. 316)

The beauty of Mr. Huntington's remarks lies in the endless opportunity open to all of us to become sophists at the price of a simple formula. What if the earth were flattened in four places instead of two and there were no calcium in its crust? Or if green had a more irritating effect on the rods and cones of our eye screen? Why, then, green would mean "stop" and red would mean "go." (In case you are still curious about the missing calcium, its absence from the earth's crust might have resulted in no sabre-toothed tiger, term-end examinations, oyster stew, and my Cousin Frances.) It's a conjecture without a horizon and any teacher can have a pleasant term toying with the idea by keeping it at the tip of his imagination. And clocks! And calendars! Why *are* the Indians, who invented the Aztec calendar, such confirmed procrastinators? I suspect that many centuries ago they began to see through the riddles that Huntington proposes. I think they got bored with specious suppositions and began drinking something headier than the tonic served up in the text to pass for thought.

"If the ocean stood 600 feet lower . . ." Let us change *lower* to *higher* and see how the thought may be developed. The great Atlantic alluvial plain would be under water, Maine's potatoes might be growing in Ontario, western Pennsylvania would become salt-water farmland and the Grand Central Station would have to be moved back to the Poconos. A few such twists (gimmicks they call them in the radio business) and you can shuck your own corn in the classroom, perhaps with an improved Hooper rating and a reputation for originality.

In other parts of the book there are some choice explanations of social and historical phenomena from which we quote. The captions are ours.

**Why the Hatfields Hated the McCoys or Go Get a Lawyer in the Valley:**

When one man wrongs another in the mountains, it is difficult to get redress through the law, because the officials are usually far away in the lowlands. Among cowardly people this means that wrongs would go unrighted. Among bold, sturdy mountaineers, however, it leads men to try to right their own wrongs. Thus if a man is murdered, his brothers, sons, and other relatives feel that it is their duty to kill the murderer themselves. If they do so, the relatives of the murderer try in their turn to take vengeance. Thus family feuds arise, which may last for many generations. Sometimes a little quarrel over some trifles arouses people's anger and blows are struck. The quarrel thus started may go on for decades and cause the children, grandchildren, and even the great-grandchildren of the first pair to lie in wait by the roadside to shoot one another. (p. 223-224)

**Napoleon Died on St. Helena Because He Couldn't Swim the Atlantic**

How effective the ocean barrier may be is illustrated by the life of Napoleon. After he had been conquered by the English, Spanish, and Germans, he was sent to the island of Elba as an exile. There, however, the water that separated him from France was so narrow that he escaped from exile and returned to lead his armies once more. Then when he was again conquered at Waterloo in 1815, he was sent to the little island of St. Helena, separated even from Africa by a barrier of 1,200 miles of water, and from France, by 5,000. He could not escape, and so spent the rest of his life there. Like the lighthouse keeper on a rocky island during a storm, he was held in one small place because he had no means of crossing the ocean barrier. (p. 241)

**Rocks Are Exclusive, but Fishermen Don't Draw the Social Line**

Where the beach is broken by a river or estuary, a piece of water protected from the waves may be dotted with sailboats at anchor, while a yacht club may stand close by on the shore. The headlands, on the contrary, are generally occupied by larger houses which are placed somewhat irregularly in more extensive grounds. Their owners often try to keep outsiders away from the shore. The fact that the sea beats directly against steep rocks instead of against a beach helps them in this, but the rocks attract fishermen. The hotels on the rocky headlands tend to be more expensive and exclusive than on the sandy beaches. (p. 252)

**Why John L. Lewis Never Quotes Ellsworth Huntington**

The process of breaking out the coal and loading it into little cars far underground is monotonous and tiresome. The miners are not particularly well paid, for the work does not require much skill. (p. 326) . . . Strikes, too, are common. . . . Such strikes are most likely to occur in isolated communities inhabited largely by a foreign-born population. Since the miners are ignorant, both politics and social life have usually been dominated either by unscrupulous mine owners or labor agitators. Since other industries are not well developed, it is not easy for the miners to enter other occupations, and there is no body of skilled laborers, merchants, and other substantial people to act as a balance wheel. . . . Thus it appears that, while coal is one of the foundations of modern industry, the actual work of mining coal is a hindrance to civilization. (p. 327)

**Congressmen Make Grave Mistakes on Purpose**

Congressmen often try to get appropriations for their own districts regardless of the rest of the country. It is a grave mistake to think that money should be spent in one's own particular district whether it produces benefits or not. (p. 524)

# Suggestions for Supervising the Reading Program in the Social Studies

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The introduction of children to books is one of the most important tasks which devolves upon the teacher. Children generally enjoy reading, and it is always interesting to observe them quietly reading in a children's library. Unfortunately, somewhere in the mechanical routinized activities in schools, many pupils lose their desire for reading or else are not encouraged to make contributions from their reading experiences to the common experiences of the group. If pupils have not formed desirable reading habits, or if they have learned to dislike reading because of poor procedures, the problems of the teacher at any school level are increased in number and in degree of difficulty.<sup>1</sup>

*Objectives:*

1. To gain rich and varied experience through reading.
2. To instill strong motives for, and permanent interests in, reading.
3. To build desirable attitudes and economical and effective habits and skills.<sup>2</sup>

*Factors on which promotion of interest depends:*

1. The personality of the teacher.
2. The extent and breadth of the teacher's reading and interest in books.
3. The degree of leadership and amiability in the teacher—pupil relations.
4. The accessibility, extent, and diversification of reading material.

*Suggestions for securing reading materials and keeping abreast of the times:*

1. Teachers must read periodicals, newspapers, and contemporary books in order to stimulate the participation of students.
2. Use weekly newspapers especially written for high school pupils.

<sup>1</sup> William G. Kimmel, *The Management of the Reading Program in the Social Studies* (Philadelphia: McKinley Publishing Company, 1929), Chapter VIII.

<sup>2</sup> Carter V. Good, *The Supplementary Reading Assignment* (Baltimore: Warwick and York, Inc., 1927), Chapter XV.

3. Use the class period for discussion. Perhaps it may follow a pertinent radio program.
4. Keep a bibliography of the most valuable articles that have appeared in current materials.
5. It is a good idea for the teacher to call the attention of the pupils to important events of the week.
6. Students should be encouraged to keep a file of clippings and the unit or semester test may touch upon current affairs in some respect. "A useful exercise at the end of each semester is a short 'history' of the United States or the world for the four or five months just passed. This paper should be prepared in class and not written ahead of time."
7. "Pupils should be encouraged to read critically. They should look for contradictions and snap judgments. . . . They should gain the historian's perspective which gives events their true size regardless of the newspaper column space."<sup>3</sup>

*Exploring, exploiting, and expanding the student's out-of-school reading:*

1. Read to the class frequently, complete stories from books.
2. Begin a good story, read the most interesting part, tell the children the title and author, and allow them to finish the story.
3. Have the pupil read to the class a part of the story he especially likes. Many of the others will soon seek an opportunity to read all of it.
4. Make use of Book Week:
  - a. Exhibit book posters and discuss them.
  - b. Present Book Week stunts.
  - c. Encourage parents to give good books to their children as presents.

<sup>3</sup> Howard Van Norman, "Keeping Social Science Abreast of the Times," *Illinois Teacher*, XXIII (1935) 144-146.

5. Get acquainted with books which the children own:
  - a. Encourage children to bring books to school.
  - b. Permit the children to tell about their own books.
6. When studying about the different countries, have the pupils bring in magazine articles or pictures pertaining to them. Have these read and discussed by pupils.
7. Make more use of the school's supplementary books by encouraging the children to take these books home, to tell stories they read, and to recommend books to others.
8. Have acceptable magazines for all reading abilities.
9. Make little booklets with stories clipped from magazines, newspapers, etc.
10. Place before the class current event papers prepared for the schools:
  - a. Discuss the making of these papers.
  - b. Talk with the children on topics that they can comprehend from the papers.
  - c. Read to the child occasionally suitable selections from these newspapers.
  - d. Help them select items desirable to be read in the daily papers.
11. Encourage the children to begin to use the newspapers by finding the words, phrases, and sentences that they can read.
12. Put in some conspicuous place a collection of easy-to-read, carefully selected books.<sup>4</sup>

*Need for the improvement of leisure reading by the pupil:*

1. "Most people do not read good books. Furthermore, most people *could not* read good books. The best books dealing with critical issues cannot be understood by the ordinary citizen."
2. A study of the Iowa Planning Board shows that of 1,100 young people, 29 per cent claim to enjoy reading more than any other activity. In this group 43 per cent had read no book within a year; 27 per cent read 1-5 books; 7 per cent had read as many as twelve books. Less than 5 per cent had read any literary magazines.
3. The study made by Johnson and Packer shows that during the year in five colleges,

<sup>4</sup> Wayne T. Branom, "Means of Stimulating Pupils to do Out-of-School Reading," *Illinois Teacher*, XXVI (1937) 71.

only 15,000 of 350,000 library books were asked for and less than 5 per cent were used 5 or more times. The median number of books drawn per student was 20 for all subjects for the whole year.

4. In a study of 24 large cities, Strayer found the median expenditure for libraries was 10 cents per pupil, with 48 cents, the largest amount, in the middle 50 per cent of the cities. "Unless books are provided, it is impossible to improve leisure reading."<sup>5</sup>

*Finding a book to read:*

1. Use the Book Review Section of the Sunday *New York Times* or of some other metropolitan newspaper:

- a. Turn to the part devoted to "Latest Books Received." Read the topical headings for a book which interests you:
  - History and Biography
  - Fiction
  - Literature and Essays
  - Poetry and Drama
  - Music
  - Philosophy and Religion
  - Juvenile
  - Economics and Sociology
  - Textbooks
  - Reference Books
  - World Affairs
  - New Editions
  - Education
  - Miscellaneous
  - Pamphlets

- b. Note the books or pamphlets that appeal to you.
- c. Find the full review of an interesting book in the first part of the magazine.
- d. After reading the review decide whether this book should be recommended to the librarian.
- e. Fill out the appropriate blank recommending the book for purchase.

2. Read a book of your selection:

- a. Look for a review of this book.
- b. Compare and contrast the impressions of the reviewer with your own impressions.
- c. If possible, compare several different reviews.

<sup>5</sup> Ernest Horn, "The Importance of Leisure Reading," *Idaho Journal of Education*, XIX (1938) 136.

*Reading to interpret a quotation and to understand how it was written:*

1. Representative quotations from dramatic incidents in American history might be selected because of their appropriateness to the Defense Program.
2. The quotations first used may be selected from the text or texts.
3. These expressions may be used as a point of departure for studying the lives of several men present when the statement was made.
4. Pictures, cartoons, short stories, and detailed descriptions from various sources may be used to augment the meaning of the quotation. Below is given an example:

"I mix them with brains, Sir."

John Opie (1761-1807)

"Opie gave this answer to a visitor who inquired by what remarkable process he mixed his colors to render them so fresh and vigorous. His love of his art made him indifferent to popular favor and he devoted his brush to historical and scriptural subjects on a lofty scale, like the 'Murder of Rizzio' (1787), which opened the door of the Academy to him."<sup>6</sup>

*What abilities are needed to test the validity of materials?*

1. One must be able to read widely. Many viewpoints are necessary in order to evaluate the truth of material.
2. The ability to use the dictionary will enable one to discriminate fine shades of meaning and to understand technical terms which give a deeper meaning to what is read.
3. The ability to use cross references will aid in locating material.
4. The ability to use the index will be helpful in locating what other writers have to say upon the same or related subjects.
5. Footnotes are of value to both the writer and reader.
6. The ability to use "Who's Who," in studying

<sup>6</sup> Walter Fogg, *One Thousand Sayings of History* (New York: Gossett and Dunlap, 1929), p. 583.

authors, will enable the reader to find out about their training and experience.

7. The ability to interpret in the light of what precedes and what follows is essential.

*What attitudes are necessary for testing the validity of reading matter?*

1. One needs to have the attitude that an opinion will not be formed until all the evidence is collected.
2. An attitude of fairness is essential.
3. One needs an attitude which demands that sooner or later the data shall be verified.
4. An attitude of inquiry into the facts of reliability will greatly facilitate the testing of validity.

*What knowledges are necessary in testing validity?*

1. We need to know the standing of the author.
2. We need to know the training, experience, and accomplishments of the author.
3. We need to know what the author has written.
4. It is also very helpful to know what experience the author has had outside of his academic training.
5. We want to take into account the possibility of motives for downright falsehood or for twisting or coloring the truth.
6. The knowledge of the possibility of honest mistakes is helpful in testing validity.
7. We should know how soon after the event the record was made and what an opportunity the recorder had for learning the truth.
8. We need to know whether the witness was a participant who would see but part of the happenings or a disinterested spectator.
9. The knowledge of the basis for making the statement is a help.
10. A knowledge of whether a statement is in accord, or in opposition to, the general belief is highly important.
11. A knowledge of the standing of the publication in which the statement occurs is significant.<sup>7</sup>

<sup>7</sup> Robert H. Morrison, "Testing Validity of Printed Statements," *Colorado School Journal* XLVI (1930) 37-40.

## Focus on Costa Rica

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Of all the Central American Republics, Costa Rica, it would seem, should have been least likely to fall under the iron heel of Communism. To students and observers of Latin America, the capture of Costa Rica's government by Red leaders in the spring of 1948 came somewhat as a surprise and somewhat as a revelation of the forces that have been quietly and insidiously developing there for the past decade or two. One can only wish that both the Church and the State in Costa Rica had been more alert to the corruption at work within the nation and better prepared to combat it.

There is hope, though, in the thought that tradition, history, economics and political instincts for almost half a century have tended steadily toward democracy and that the people are not likely to abandon lightly the notable gains in self-government which Costa Rica has made during the twentieth century. Possessing a homogeneous population, a considerable number of small land-owners and a high degree of literacy, Costa Rica is almost unique among Latin American countries in its close approach to a working union of government theory and practice. Since 1902, when Ascension Esquivel was made president, real elections and an extensive franchise have been characteristic of Costa Rican politics. In the general election of February, 1936, action was taken against those who tried to obstruct free and secret balloting. Later that same year an amendment to the constitution made voting obligatory, not only in presidential but in municipal and congressional elections as well. The 1936 returns marked the strengthening of younger, more liberal, and progressive elements among the electorate, but this force proved itself openly unfavorable to communism and even took congressional action against its activities.

Among Latin American States, Costa Rica possesses a remarkable record of political stability and democracy. Since the late nineteenth century there has been no invitation to dictator-

ship. While it can hardly be regarded as a nation having a popular government in the sense of control by the organized public opinion of the state, yet Presidential power in actual affairs is a power balanced well by a Congress possessing real prerogatives and a Judiciary free from the domination of the Executive. For a number of decades, political disorders of a serious nature have been rare. Free speech and free press have prevailed. Craft and bribery in government affairs have not been prevalent.

Unlike many Latin American states, Costa Rica's civic life has not been burdened with the problem of a population economically dependent and politically inert. There are few Indians in the population, because an insignificant number survived the first years of Spanish rule. Current statistics classify 90 per cent of the inhabitants of the Costa Rican area as white, and eight per cent as *mestizo*; other types are negligible. This predominantly white society which occupies Costa Rica is in large part responsible for the social coherence, consequent common interests, and steady progress toward republicanism for which Costa Rica has been remarkable.

Common Spanish cultural traditions provide strong bonds uniting the Costa Ricans. Most Costa Ricans are the descendants of sturdy peasants from Northern Spain. They are members of the Catholic Church. They read the literature of Spain. The social structure in which they live—semi-feudal and agrarian—takes its model from Old Spain. Upon these bases was founded a state notable for its racial coherence, its social order, its economic and political life. Democracy, not Communism, was to have been its natural goal.

Land ownership determines the degree of economic power a man possesses, and to a great extent, land ownership also determines his political power in many Latin American countries. In a smaller measure than in most other countries has the political and economic power of

Costa Rica been concentrated in the hands of a few. Most of the Costa Ricans live on small farms. The Costa Rican population has been relatively free from the extremes of wealth and poverty. There are few wealthy landowners and at the other end of the scale, very few Indians or Negro peons. Where there is a tremendous cleavage between the rich and poor, dangerous social classifications are to be found, classifications which provide the breeding ground of Communism. But Costa Rica has had no clearly divided social castes, no great capitalists, no proletarian masses. It is a small homogeneous state, in which men have been known as *hermanicos* (brotherlies) because their interests and ideas have been almost identical. Indeed, for many years Costa Rica seemed to exemplify the classic idea which associates the success of the republican system with limited territories and small human groups.

Hopes for a true Costa Rican democracy have long been based on the existence of an extensive body of small independent farmers. The existence of small farms has provided a wide distribution of property. The distribution of land has played a key role in determining forms of Latin American government. Land ownership in Costa Rica, for example, differs from Salvador where a few wealthy coffee growers dominate all political life. In Argentina, maldistribution of land has been at least in part responsible for a whole tradition of one-man governments, and as long as land monopolization dominates national economy, the tradition is likely to continue.

Costa Rica is the most literate of all the Central American nations, and proudly boasts that it has more teachers than soldiers. Provision for education has been made for all children, and the schools are among the best in northern Latin America. Since the regime of President Soto in 1886, elementary education has been compulsory and free. The immediate direction of education belongs to the municipalities. Article 53 of the Constitution permits every Costa Rican to receive what instruction he pleases in any educational establishment supported by public funds.

In San José, the capital and leading city of Costa Rica, there is a lyceum for boys and a college for girls. Cartago, Alajuela, Heredia are

among the towns that have colleges. There are schools of law and medicine, a national museum, a national library, the University of Santo Tomas and the Physico-Geographical and Meteorological Institution. In 1940, President Guardia founded a national university.

A feature of education standing in strong contrast to that found in most Latin American schools is the adoption of co-education in primary schools. Economy, particularly in rural districts, where separate schools would have been difficult to support, was one of the motives for this departure. High educational standards may be attributed to many causes. Among them is the relative physical isolation of the country which has brought freedom from political disturbance overflowing the natural borders, such as have held back Costa Rica's northern neighbors. Another situation with which Costa Rica is not burdened is the problem of a large Indian and frontier population, and widely dispersed settlements with poor communications. Such factors make education difficult and seemingly superfluous for great masses of people in Brazil, Peru, Ecuador, Colombia, Venezuela, and elsewhere.

Costa Rica was so named by early Spanish settlers because of its immense natural resources—its virgin forests, broad savannas, mineral deposits and valuable vegetable and fruit products. Agriculture, the basic industry of Costa Rica, is mainly dependent upon three crops: bananas, coffee, and cacao. The United Fruit Company has recently transferred much of its activity from the Caribbean coast to the Pacific coast, where an investment of \$10,000,000 in three years, 1937-1940, has succeeded in opening up thousands of acres of virgin territory in the largest banana project yet known. Banana cultivation is exceedingly important, and heavy exports of fruit are made annually. But coffee is the predominant product and yields high returns. Most of the coffee plantations are small, largely in the hands of Costa Ricans, and are found in the central plateau where the rainfall, temperature, and soil conditions are ideal for coffee culture.

There are several thousand factories and industries in Costa Rica. All industries are small. They include cigar and cigarette factories, many coffee-drying establishments, starch,

broom, and woodworking factories. In addition, there are small lumber and pastoral industries; there are rice mills, shoe factories, plants for the extraction of edible oil, cotton textile plants, and many handicraft and cottage units.

The bulk of Costa Rica's population dwell in the highlands. Here density of population is sufficient to pay the costs of road construction, education, and other public services, and economic crises are not frequent. Costa Rica's soil is fertile and two harvests a year are commonly reaped. In proportion to its size, Costa Rica has kept a fast pace in the race for industrial advancement.

In the majority of Latin American states one sees conditions which provide a background against which Communism appears at least attractive, if not absolutely inviting. In almost

every one of these countries either the dominance of the great landed estates fosters the concentration of political power in the hands of a few and creates a serious political and economic problem; or, the Indian element is so large and so apathetic that one finds a state within a state; or, educational and cultural standards are so extraordinarily low that Communism might easily take hold. But in Costa Rica one does not find the present crisis rooted in these things. Behind the tragic picture which Costa Rican politics now presents do not lie the solid facts of poverty, ignorance, or social and economic disparity. Wherever the answer to the present *coup d'état* lies, it is indeed not to be sought in the past half-century of Costa Rican history. In reply to the question, "Is Communism likely to prevail here?" history does present something—a picture that is not too dark.

## Visual and Other Aids

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The British Information Services (30 Rockefeller Plaza, New York 20, N.Y.) lists as available the following 16 mm. films:

*Snowdonia*. 17 minutes. Rental \$5.00. Technicolor.

This film shows scenic Snowdonia in Northwest Wales with its lakes, farms, and castles and its roads winding through the mountains.

*Power on the Land*. 17 minutes. Rental \$5.00. Technicolor.

Manual methods of planting and reaping are contrasted with modern, mechanized farming employed in increasing food production.

*The Royal Wedding*. 30 minutes. Rental \$7.50. Technicolor.

*Furnival and Son*. 18 minutes. Rental \$2.50.

Furnival and Son shows a typical traditional high-grade cutlery firm in the City of Sheffield which employs about thirty to forty workers, who toil in a small forge which has been handed down from father to son. This small firm must compete with the huge modern cutlery factories engaging in mass production.

*Designing Women*. 24 minutes. Rental \$3.75.

This film, through a running narrative,

contrasts two methods of furnishing an apartment.

*K. R. O.—Germany 1947*. 11 minutes. Rental \$1.25.

The duties of a British Zone administrative officer, as shown in this film, include coping with refugees, shortages, smugglers and hoarders. Stills are available on this film.

*Top Liner*. 22 minutes. Rental \$2.50.

The liner of this title is *H. M. S. Queen Elizabeth*, which can carry 2,314 passengers in comfort and is prepared to make a return trip in two days.

*Edinburgh Festival of Music and Drama*. 10 minutes. Rental \$1.25.

The Festival provides a varied offering consisting of chamber music, symphony orchestra, opera, Highland dancing, dramatic performances by Louis Jouvet's company and by the Old Vic, and an exhibition of Scottish goods.

Stills of this film are available.

*River Tyne*. 12 minutes. Rental \$1.25.

Describing the River Tyne from its source to its mouth, the film shows the modern industries on its banks and its historical associations, such

as the Roman wall and the medieval fortifications against the Scots.

*Moving Millions.* 17 minutes. Rental \$2.50. Sound Film.

The millions refer to those London must transport. To handle them efficiently the London Transport Executive has organized a routine for cleaning and checking buses and subways, schools for training conductors and drivers, and research for new safety devices. Stills are available.

*Town Rats.* 16 minutes. Rental \$2.50. Sound Film.

Modern methods of rat extermination are explained and the dangers of rat infestation pointed out. An entire city block is selected for rat-extermination, which block is then surveyed and covered with traps and poisoned bait.

*Five Towns.* 27 minutes. Rental \$3.75.

Concerned with the British pottery industry, this film shows the whole process of making fine china from lumps of wet clay. There are some shots of the Crown Staffordshire Pottery and of the Wedgwood pottery.

*They Live Again.* 18 minutes. Rental \$2.50.

A study of the work carried on at a Rehabilitation Center for injured coal miners, the film shows how exercise, therapy, and a sympathetic environment help the patients' progress toward recovery and toward resuming their jobs.

*Radio-Service.* 20 minutes. Rental \$2.50.

"Radio-Service" offers a description of the radio and electronics industry in Great Britain, showing the whole process of constructing radio sets, the peace-time uses of radar, and the ways in which radio heat is used in industry, medicine and other fields.

The British Information Services has recently made the following announcements.

Swank Motion Pictures, Inc. 614 North Skinker Blvd., St. Louis, Mo., has been appointed the official agent of the British Information Services in the St. Louis area. Swank now maintains a complete library of print of all B. I. S., 16 mm. sound films.

The British Information Services has announced the cancellation of its contract with Film Publishers, Inc. All applications for 16 mm. prints of "Man—One Family" and "Your Children and You" should now be sent direct to

the British Information Services, 30 Rockefeller Plaza, New York, 20, N. Y.

The original release of *The Falkland Islands* listed incorrectly the running time and the rental fee. The correct running time is 11 minutes and the rental fee \$1.25.

Neither the British Information Services nor Simmel Meservey, Inc. suggest the grade or the intelligence levels for which their films are suitable.

Simmel-Meservey, Inc. of Beverly Hills, California presents (a) a film and (b) a series of nine film strips on various problems of behavior in the classroom and in the playground.

(a) *There Were Two Doctors.* 2 reels. 20 minutes. Price: Color \$170. Black and White \$98.

The two doctors of the title are the young Mexican physician and the village witch doctor. The former, serving his internship in a tiny rural Mexican village, tries with the padre's help to battle against the peasants' superstitions. His experiences and his success are shown against a background of Mexican rural life.

(b) Each film strip was pre-tested with school children and supervisors before it was released. Each sells for \$2.50. "Field Trip" is also available in color at \$4.90.

*What Would You Do?* (26 frames).

This strip shows two children who are subjected to the same experience but who respond differently. Their behavior is not evaluated in the film, judgment upon it being left to the observer.

*The New Book.* (30 frames).

The strip tells of the proper treatment of a new book by some children and the abuse by others, pointing out to the audience the importance of using a book properly and the damage that may result from its misuse.

*Working Together* (23 frames).

Cooperation is taught by the story of three children who want to build a playhouse but do not want to share it. They soon discover that no one of them can do the job alone and then agree to work together.

*The Slide.* (33 frames).

This strip teaches two lessons: that sound reasons have shaped the rules of safety, and that sharing is good for everybody.

*The Field Trip* (36 frames).

In order to be successful a field trip must be planned. How to accomplish this efficiently is the burden of this film.

*Jimmy Didn't Listen*. (26 frames).

Jimmy's experience demonstrates the importance of listening to instructors and putting things in their proper places.

*Schoolground Discoverer*. (21 frames).

The problem of the untidy school grounds

and its solution is presented in the form of a story.

*Share the Ball*. (32 frames).

A group of children discover that it is more fun to share their ball and play together than to play alone. Sharing is the theme of the narrative.

*Share the Sandpile*. (26 frames).

The strip suggests how children can play together pleasantly by getting along with each other.

## News and Comment

LEONARD B. IRWIN

Principal, High School, Haddon Heights, New Jersey

### TEACHING CURRENT EVENTS

One of the perennial problems in the social studies field and one that is frequently brought to our attention is how to teach current events. All sorts of plans and procedures are used from school to school. Some are worth-while and some probably not. Often their success is due not so much to the plan used as to the personality and technical ability of the teacher. No thoroughly satisfactory program seems to have been generally accepted.

The most recent attack on the problem appeared in *The New York Times Magazine* of January 23 in an article by Walter E. Myer, director of the Civic Education Service in Washington. Mr. Myer, who has long been active in promoting current events teaching in the schools, has written an article for general consumption in which he presents the principal arguments for the study of current problems in the school. No one can deny the validity of most of them and Mr. Myer does not labor such a commonly accepted thesis unnecessarily. He turns most of his attention to a break-down of the faults of most current events teaching as it is usually done, and to a specific suggestion for improvement.

His first criticism is that not enough time is allotted to current events. In many schools one period a week is devoted to the subject as part of the social studies courses, and pupils not in a social studies class do not receive even this small amount. The result is that the students

gain a superficial acquaintanceship with a scattered group of news events, often incomplete and unrelated. Since there is insufficient time to keep up with daily developments and work up sound background information, the results may often be nearly worthless.

Mr. Myer says that scholastic standards in current events are low. He claims that such classes are frequently poorly organized and controlled. He attributes this in considerable part to the fact that teachers are almost never specifically trained and certificated in teaching current events. That they may be well versed in history or geography by no means offers assurance that teachers are equally well informed on contemporary affairs. The attitude of students is another limiting factor. Pupils are likely to take but little interest in a subject which is injected one day a week into the major business of the course and are apt to regard the current events period rather as an opportunity to relax.

Lack of continuity is another handicap to a successful current events program. Not only is it interrupted each week, but ended entirely at the conclusion of the social studies course to which it is appended. Only those comparatively few pupils who take a social studies course every year have an opportunity to carry on the current events class work throughout their school life.

Mr. Myer also takes issue with those courses which omit direct current events work on the

assumption that the study of civics and history background will provide the interest and information necessary for the understanding of current affairs. The point is well taken. Few children of school age are able to make the generalizations and abstract relationships needed to draw parallels of value between what is happening now and what has happened in the past. This process requires a fairly high level of ability to rationalize and think independently, and few youngsters possess it.

The plan which Mr. Myer proposes to give American young people a sound civic education on a contemporary basis is an ambitious and attractive one; that the obstacles to it are so numerous and weighty is unfortunate. Briefly, he suggests three things. First, he would require every pupil, from junior high school through college, to take a five-hour-a-week current history course to be devoted to national and international problems as they develop. Secondly, he proposes a scholarship fund for pupils who demonstrate marked interest and ability in this field, so that their education could be extended and their talents not be lost to the nation. Finally he would require each teacher-training institution to provide the courses necessary to prepare teachers to work in the field of current events just as is done with other subjects.

There is little doubt that a major course in current events would be a most valuable addition to the curriculum, and certainly a stimulating and interesting one to teach. Many social studies teachers must have wished that they could have the opportunity to work with such a project. But as long as a pupil's load is limited to four or five majors, the equally inconsistent claims of English, foreign languages, science, mathematics, home economics and vocational subjects practically compel the social sciences to restrict their requirements to their present budget of time. One can agree fully with Mr. Myer in his concern for the importance of training new citizens in their immediate civic problems, but it is impossible to accept his proposals as a practicable solution of the current events problem.

#### TEACHING CONTROVERSIAL ISSUES

Another difficult problem of technique in teaching the social studies is that of dealing

with controversial issues. It is the type of problem which vexes the young teacher and the experienced alike, and which can in extreme cases enmesh the administration, school board and general public. It is so often true that parents and townspeople know little and care less, apparently, whether their children are being taught a sound understanding of the principles of physics or a true appreciation of good literature; but they can develop a very vigorous interest in the possibility that their children have become aware of an ideology or socio-political theory at variance with the community norms. Subjects such as labor relations, communism, racial and religious prejudice, the free enterprise system and American foreign policy are potential dynamite in the classroom. A social studies class which ignores them is unworthy of the name and one which investigates them is a serious challenge to good teaching technique. In many subject matter fields the instructor can safely afford to be rather dogmatic. He can say or least strongly imply: "This is the correct answer" or "This is good art and this is not" or "Tennyson was a better poet than Edgar Guest." But he must beware of insisting upon the truth of political and social doctrines upon which there is divided opinion in the community.

There were two excellent articles in the November *High Points* on teaching controversial issues. They may serve as valuable guides to other teachers in this field, and to supervisors as well, as they represent extensive experience in the schools of New York City where every shade and type of social opinion and background are found.

One of the primary matters for the teacher to consider is the solution of issues to be studied. Woolf Colvin of Seward Park High School warned against making social studies teaching "a tissue of mere current events." (Presumably there is no intention here to disagree with Mr. Myer by belittling the importance of current events in themselves!) The issues to be taken up should be "an integral part of the syllabus of the subject and studied in historical context." They should not require a greater maturity of knowledge and judgment than the pupils can be expected to possess. Issues involving, for instance, a familiarity with the processes of foreign exchange, inter-

national currency and banking, or complicated economic theory are better left untouched in high school classes. It is essential, too, that discussions should not be merely an exchange of already formed opinions; it is necessary that the students become familiar with new facts and points-of-view not heretofore available to them. Thus a wide variety of material presenting every aspect of the topic must be required reading and the pupils must have sufficient time to assimilate it.

It goes almost without saying that for the successful presentation of a controversial subject the teacher has a responsibility not to let his personal opinion color the discussion. It is true that a teacher is justified in calling attention to points that might otherwise be overlooked, or in taking an argumentative position for the purpose of stimulating thought and rebuttal. But he cannot properly demand that the pupils accept his personal beliefs as the only logical conclusions of the study. The geometry student who starts with a given set of premises and arrives at a conclusion at odds with that expected by the teacher may properly be called wrong and marked accordingly; but the pupil who, after proper consideration of the facts presented in the study of a controversial issue, reaches conclusions different from the teacher's cannot rightly be penalized for it. The teacher can only make the evidence available and hope it will speak for itself.

The art of teaching controversial issues consists in : (1) selecting appropriate, important and interesting topics; (2) providing adequate materials representing all sides of the question; (3) showing pupils how to separate fact from opinion; and (4) teaching them to form their opinions from the available facts, rather than to look for facts to support their opinions. Last but by no means least, the teacher must show his class that the opinions they reach need not be alike, nor should they be regarded as unchangeable. Unlike the  $x + y$  of mathematics, results in social problems are not a matter of black or white, right or wrong. They are always some shade of gray which is not permanently fixed. This is often a difficult thing to teach children, who are fond of definite and simple answers; but the developing of open and inquiring minds is more desirable than the teach-

ing of specific attitudes and facts which often prove later to be fallible.

#### THE PURPOSES OF UNESCO

Among the valuable features of the October and November issues of the *Unesco Courier* were a summary of the year's activities and a series of articles dealing with the Lebanon in particular and Arab civilization in general, occasioned by the General Session of Unesco at Beirut. As this department has insisted before, the *Courier* remains one of the most important and challenging records of man's aspirations, despite the cynicism of many critics who consider Unesco as a somewhat futile gesture. It is true that the organization has not yet made a very definite mark in man's affairs, but its endeavors to date surely deserve more than sneers.

In contrast to some of the faintly contemptuous analyses of Unesco which are occasionally written, an article appeared in the summer issue of the *Harvard Educational Review* under the authorship of Dr. Henry W. Holmes. Dr. Holmes, former Dean of the Harvard Graduate School of Education and Consultant in Education for Unesco in 1946, feels that the leaders of Unesco are not following closely enough the program intended by its constitution-makers when they conceived of it as an agency "to affect the minds of men." He says that it is failing to accomplish this because its activities are "not limited enough, not simple enough, not consistent enough and not clear enough in [their] bearing on present world needs to be easy to describe and defend." Dr. Holmes claims that, for one thing, Unesco has tended to move too far toward the "high-brow" and away from the common man. He reminds us that Unesco's purpose is the "intellectual and moral solidarity" not of scientists or scholars but of mankind. He points out, too, that a tendency to plan too far into the future, while ignoring present-day conditions which threaten both the peace and welfare of man, is a dangerous policy at a time when the world is so precariously balanced.

He maintains finally that Unesco should not try to ignore the fact that the world is divided, but should ally itself with the Western powers which so obviously stand for the same principles for which Unesco was founded. It is pledged to promote the "free exchange of ideas

and knowledge" and "human rights and fundamental freedoms." Unesco cannot play a vital part in promoting these things if it hides its head in the sand and tries to pretend that these things are sought equally by all nations. But as Dr. Holmes points out; "Unesco need not be partisan *politically*, that is, between nations. It can define its position internationally and let any nation put the cap on if it fits."

In conclusion, Dr. Holmes says that he is not opposed to Unesco's efforts to bring people together with other people, nor discouraged at the progress it is making in fostering international understanding. Nor does he think it undesirable for Unesco to be idealistic; the world needs some idealism. But he concludes: "I am convinced—and I should be far happier if it were not so—that Unesco must declare as evil, and work patiently and firmly to oppose, that which is, by its own basic tenets, an ever-darkening threat to peace and human welfare."

#### NOTES

The importance of local historical research was discussed in this department in January, and we were very gratified to receive an excellent example from Mount Clemens High School, Mount Clemens, Michigan. Originating in a student theme and greatly enlarged under the direction of the school's social studies chairman, Robert Beal, the result is a noteworthy bibliography of source materials on the history of Macomb County. It is a cooperative work in which the interest of people throughout the county was enlisted. The attractive pamphlet, entitled *Just Yesterday*, combines an itemized and remarkably thorough listing of many sorts of printed sources with a number of interesting

old photographs. The booklet must be a matter of real pride to those who compiled it and should prove of great worth to anyone doing historical work in that area in the future. It is the sort of thing that can be done anywhere, provided the same initiative, effort and intelligence are put into the task.

Minnesota is also contributing something worth-while to the cause of local history development in the schools. The Minnesota Historical Society sponsors "Gopher Chapters" which are affiliated groups in various high schools. It also publishes a lively monthly magazine for these chapters entitled the *Gopher Historian*, which appeared in regular printed form for the first time in November. In addition to news of Gopher Chapter activities, it contains articles and features by and for high school pupils. It should be a real stimulant to young people to learn about and take pride in the history of their state.

The American University, Washington, D. C., has announced plans for its annual six-week summer session on the United States in World Affairs. It will be held from June 13 to July 23 with the theme stated as "1949—Year of Decision." Members of the Advisory Committee, headed by Walter E. Myer and Paul F. Douglass, include such well-known figures as Dr. Howard Anderson, Dr. A. J. Brumbaugh, Dr. Merrill F. Hartshorn, Dr. Paul Elcker and others. The program consists of lectures, workshops and field trips, including one to the United Nations at Lake Success. Information concerning the session may be obtained by writing to the Director of the Summer Session, 208 Hurst Hall, The American University, Washington 16, D. C.

## Book Reviews and Notes

Edited by DAVID W. HARR

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*Triumph of Freedom, 1775-1783.* By John C. Miller. Boston: Little, Brown and Company, 1948. Pp. xxx, 688. \$6.50.

Teachers of American history will be glad to hear that there is a new popular history

of the American Revolution. The book is readable, packed with interesting anecdotes, and especially strong on details about campaigns and battles.

Do not be put off by the fact that book ex-

tends to 668 pages. The style is far from pedantic and, although the author has worked diligently in unpublished manuscript material, he has not choked his pages with footnotes. In fact the style is so easy to follow that a high school teacher could assign chapters to seniors and juniors.

The book gives a great deal of new and interesting information. It offers excellent details on the methods of fighting in the late eighteenth century. Particularly valuable is the account of the British army, with facts about transporting it overseas, quartering it in towns, and keeping it supplied.

The picture of England in the 1770's and 1780's is fully given. George III, and his ministers come alive: a determined king, a discouraged Lord Germain, and a faltering prime minister, Lord North. There is a full account of the hour of crisis in 1779 when France and Spain threatened to invade the island and only the king showed courage in leadership.

Another excellent part of the book deals with American negotiations with France, and features Benjamin Franklin as a diplomat and propagandist.

Perhaps most valuable to the teacher are the chapters on the campaigns and battles of the American Revolution. The author has chosen the right amount of detail and makes his story move swiftly and dramatically. He ventures new estimates of the generals and of their talent for leadership. Most gratifying is the praise accorded to General Gates and General Clinton. Many another figure and many a campaign are revalued in the light of new information.

Every teacher of American history will want to add the *Triumph of Freedom, 1775-1783* to the school library and to keep a copy on the classroom shelves.

ALLEGRA WOODWORTH

Shipley School  
Bryn Mawr, Pennsylvania

*Situational Analysis.* By Lowell Julliard Carr. New York: Harper and Brothers, 1948. Pp. xiii, 178. \$2.50.

According to the author, this book is written to break a tradition; namely, "that the best way to begin the study of group phenomena is to read about them rather than to look at them."

He is critical of sociology textbooks that present merely a mass of previously collected data, no matter how interesting, and a set of abstract concepts and principles already derived by specialists. Professor Carr proposes, instead, to teach sociology as "a methodology of discovery," by setting students to work observing social situations in which they are themselves involved. The book is planned for use as a text by itself or as a supplementary handbook for use with leading introductory texts. It calls for reports in an "observational notebook" on fourteen specific assignments.

If this book can help in making the introductory sociology course a more meaningful experience for students, more power to it! That it produces a new approach is, however, doubtful. The projects are not significantly different from those already contained in many texts or assigned by competent instructors. And Professor Carr appears forced throughout the book to revert to the use of the abstract concepts he set out to avoid. These concepts, it appears to the reviewer, actually have great value to beginning students, who have neither the time nor the equipment to build up an important body of sociological knowledge inductively. Since they are here presented with a minimum of elaboration and illustration, resort must still be had to the more complete textbook or the instructor's lecture. *Situational Analysis* turns out, therefore, to be only a rather elaborate workbook.

The author correctly disavows any attempt to treat sociology as an orientation to American culture, a summary of all the social sciences, or a study of social problems.

WAYNE C. NEELY

Hood College  
Frederick, Maryland

*The Federalists—A Study in Administrative History.* By Leonard D. White. New York: The Macmillan Company, 1948. Pp. 516. \$6.00.

"The true test of a good government is its aptitude and tendency to produce a good administration." Dr. White, a true son of old Massachusetts and Dartmouth, and for many years professor of Public Administration at the University of Chicago, aptly quotes Hamilton here. In his eyes, the early morning of our

administrative history was lit by the sun of this man's genius. He was the moving force which kept the machinery running. He not only dominated the cabinet of Washington, but also later guided Adams' ministers at their constant solicitation. Even *in absentia*, his hand was on the wheel of state almost to the moment when John Marshall made of the Supreme Court a Federalist bulwark against the assaults of Jeffersonian democracy.

The only hint of a cabinet in the Constitution is the mention of written reports which the President may require in writing from the various department heads. From this beginning, many precedents grew, and out of them came an entity, the cabinet, soon strong enough to joust with Congress in a merry tournament to establish the respective limits of executive and legislative power.

George Washington early set the pattern of a chief with his subordinates. He accepted counsel, but reserved the right to make the final decision. The struggle of executive and legislative forces revolved around such questions as the treaty-making power of the Senate and the right of the president to dismiss a Cabinet minister. When the House wished to discuss the Jay Treaty, because of the control of appropriations, Washington refused to produce the necessary papers. In fact, some Federalists, such as Ames, insisted that Congress should have only deliberative powers.

Hamilton believed in the industrial future of the nation with a strong central government to enforce contracts and to establish a stable currency. Dr. White certainly makes Jefferson the villain of this familiar feud, for the latter brought Philip Freneau to Philadelphia to establish a newspaper (*the National Gazette*) which attacked everything Hamiltonian in sight. Freneau also derived a small income from translating in Jefferson's State Department. The two jobs dovetailed neatly.

To those who look upon the forefathers as a solid piece of masonry carved out of the good old conservative rock, this book will be disappointing. Our own period offers no more diversity of opinion or samples of intrigue than does this formative decade. This is not a book for the casual reader, but an exhaustive examination into the evolution of public administration. The whole gamut of basic sources

has been run. Dr. White cannot be accused of inaccuracy or want of authenticity. It often appears tedious and lost in the net of its own thinking. But, alas! Not many can make real documentary reading as fascinating as did the late Charles Beard.

WARREN G. JOHNSTON  
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Olney High School  
Philadelphia, Pennsylvania

*Lincoln's Herndon.* By David Donald. Introduction by Carl Sandburg. New York: Alfred A. Knopf, Inc., 1948. Pp. xxi, 373. \$5.00.

This scholarly and vitally written "first book-length biography of Herndon" is on the must list of masterpieces for teachers and serious students of history and biography.

Dr. Donald, a former Southerner and now an instructor of history at Columbia University, has produced a synthesis of biography with history. In a real sense, *Lincoln's Herndon* is at one and the same time a joint biography of Herndon and Lincoln, an historical picture of the times, especially in Illinois, and an accurate and a clear-cut analysis of *Herndon's Lincoln*, which appeared in 1889 as the most controversial and influential life of Lincoln.

No doubt the influence of the Lincoln scholar, Professor J. G. Randall, is indicated. But Mr. Donald makes an original contribution of his own. Herndon is shown as a man with many shortcomings and inconsistencies in his own life and in his estimate of Lincoln. But his ability as a lawyer, writer, reader, lecturer, and leader are also documented. There is something sad and pitiful about Billy Herndon, who had spent most of his life from boyhood to old age in the shadow of his partner and friend, Abraham Lincoln. His intense desire and effort to portray Lincoln as a human being with common frailties but with potential and lasting greatness as a product of the frontier have probably never been achieved by anyone else. Herndon died practically a pauper, not realizing a royalty on his life's work and considering himself a failure in his Lincolniana influence.

As the reader completes this fascinating biography, he will want to pause on the "Epilogue," which sums up *Herndon's Lincoln*. Herndon's treatment of the illegitimacy of Nancy Hanks, the legitimacy of Abraham

Lincoln, Thomas Lincoln's shiftlessness, Lincoln's love for Ann Rutledge, the defaulting bridegroom, "domestic hell," and Lincoln's religion, seemed to cause the greatest controversy. But Herndon felt that he must give a true picture of Lincoln, which would be more influential than the pious and misleading writings of the times. He tended to approach the historical method of today. But his own writing was colored by an exaggerated opinion of his own influence on Lincoln, his unreliable sources, and his tendency to use the legal method of selecting evidence to support his own case or opinion.

This reviewer marvels at the research involved in this excellent biography and history which one will want to read and reread. But for public school students, we feel that there is a danger in presenting the biographies of great Americans in a too factual and detached manner. We can indicate shortcomings, but we do not need to dwell on the matter of the illegitimacy of Nancy Hanks or the legitimacy of Abraham Lincoln. Nor do we need to over-emphasize the debunking and negative aspects of our country or our people. That does not mean to portray our country or our people as perfect. But we do not have to present all the sordid details when there is such a short time for developing the great contributions and sacrifice of America's statesmen.

We doubt that better citizenship will result from such efforts to "dig out the dirt" in the name of research. Cynics, and indifferent or skeptical citizens result. The attitude that all politicians and leaders are dishonest or immoral comes from much of the biography which has been written in the past ten years. A balance is needed in our opinion. Point up the good characteristics, the sacrifice and contributions, the human interest stories and incidents, the leadership, and a few possible shortcomings. We would hesitate to refer our students to *Lincoln's Herndon* unless, or until, a particular point came up that the book alone could settle.

JOHN P. DIX

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*A History of Modern Europe.* By Thad W. Riker. New York: Alfred A. Knopf, 1948.

Pp. xxiii, 835. Trade, \$6.75; Text, \$5.00.

This book is a complete revision and extensive elaboration of the author's earlier work, *A Short History of Modern Europe*, which first appeared in 1935 and was favorably received by students and teachers of European history. It traces the significant developments of European history from the Reformation to the present day. Dr. Riker's main objective is "to show how institutions have evolved, then changed, and sometimes passed under the impact of man and time." (Introduction, ix). In order to achieve this end, he found it necessary to devote relatively less space to developments in art, literature, and science. About one-half of the book is devoted to an analysis of the period since 1870.

Dr. Riker succeeds very well in giving his readers a better insight into the factors and forces that have been at work in shaping European institutions. His success is due, in a large measure, to his clear, logical, and interesting presentation of his material. In a lengthy introductory chapter, he summarizes the main contributions of medieval civilization to the modern age, and evaluates the significance of the Renaissance and Reformation. In Chapters II to VII, which appear under the heading of "The Era of National Consolidation," he traces the rise of Bourbon France, the emergence of Austria and Prussia as great powers of central Europe, the rise of Russia, the development of constitutional monarchy in England, and the growth of imperialism and mercantilism. In this section he also summarizes the institutions of the Old Regime.

In Chapters VIII to XIII, which he groups under the heading "The Era of Revolution," he emphasizes the course and influence of the French Revolution, and traces the revolutionary and nationalistic movements of the nineteenth century, culminating in the unifications of Germany and Italy. In the last and longest section (Chapters XIV to XXIII), entitled "The Dynamic Era," he interprets the many profound developments that have shaken Europe in the period since 1871. In addition to analyzing the backgrounds and results of the two World Wars, he devotes considerable space to the significance of Fascism and Communism. The last chapter is an illuminating and penetrating summary of events since 1945.

In view of the present chaotic conditions in a "shattered and divided Europe," Dr. Riker "finds it hard to be optimistic. Profound historical changes never come quickly. Nationalism has grown in spiritual power through the centuries, and to divest it of its strength within five or even ten years would be to reverse perhaps the most powerful trend in history. Perhaps nothing but an enlightened, as well as a frightened, public opinion can effect such a revolution. It is one of the tragedies of our civilization that social and political thinking has not kept pace with scientific and technological advance." (p. 801).

To indicate changes in the political configuration of Europe since 1500, the book contains sixteen very helpful maps. The extensive bibliography includes many valuable references on the major topics of modern European history. Although the book is primarily designed as a text for college use, it can be read profitably by high school students, particularly since it is written in a very clear and interesting style. The reader will find the short outlines at the beginning of each chapter very useful and helpful. Dr. Riker is to be congratulated, indeed, for providing such a readable, well-balanced, and worth-while book.

RICHARD H. BAUER

University of Maryland  
College Park, Maryland

*Rural Mexico.* By Dean Nathan L. Whetten. Chicago, Illinois: University of Chicago Press, 1948. Pp. 647. \$10.00. Illustrated.

Apart from its superlative contribution to sociology, *Rural Mexico* is unique in sensing the factual needs of the Anglo-American for a realistic, organic understanding of Latin America. Serious readers, with stubborn questions and starved explanations, will find their answers supported with revealing and skillfully selected passages. It took a bi-culturist (Whetten) to puncture those elusive air-pockets of knowledge which are inevitable to opposing cultures. The result is a work of great harmony and depth of meaning, invaluable to the businessman, student and casual traveler, as well as to the specialist.

The book is broadly Hispanic-American, intimate as drawing-room coffee in its explana-

tions, and the agricultural background, core of all Latin-American life, is a highly commendable approach. Indeed, where, except in the intensely human field of sociology, could all of the varied and complicated relations of a people be so thoroughly and interestingly treated and made to hang together? So pleasing is the style, that the book is good reading and free of the stiffness typical of dissertations.

For such a conscientious work, it is unfortunate that an adequate political map has been overlooked. The chapter on Mexican geography is not quite organized on the high level of other parts, and on page 18 one is led to believe Yucatan has no rivers because the land is "so flat." A correction is that the peninsula lacks rain because of a combination of low relief and its location in the drying trade-wind belt.

The academic content embraces the whole gamut of struggle by the peon for land, Indian status and culture, polities, revolutions, the Church, pre-Columbian to contemporary historical readings, and conclusions as to progress and prospects. Particularly graphic are the intimate glimpses of everyday customs, mores, housing, clothing, diet, sanitation, the family and marriage standards.

Most delightful are explanations of the *serenata*, the system of *compadrazgo* (godparents), the village *santo patrono*, the Virgin of Guadalupe, and the superstitions of the Indian *curanderos*, or medicine men.

*Rural Mexico* is the result of years of close study, rich experience and careful thinking. Its gripping interest assures re-reading and frequent reference.

RUSSELL W. HARGREAVES

Frankford High School  
Philadelphia, Pennsylvania

*Mineral Resources of the United States.* By The Staffs of The Bureau of Mines and Geological Survey. Washington, D. C.: Public Affairs Press, 1948. Pp. 212. Figures and Charts. \$5.00.

This book, the products of more than 100 scientists, engineers, and economists, is at once an authoritative reference and a fascinating and informative compilation concerning our nation's mineral resources. Every well-in-



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formed person should be aware of this new book that brings under one cover the significant aspects of our nation's great mineral heritage.

The book is actually a reprinting of pages 175-310 of the government publication entitled: *Hearings Before a Subcommittee of the Committee on Public Lands, U. S. Senate, First Session on Investigation of the Factors Affecting Minerals*. In its present form, it has been attractively prepared with critical charts, tables, diagrams, and maps to accompany a well written—and very readable—text. Secretary of the Interior, Julius A. Krug, has written the Foreword.

The text is divided into three parts. Part I includes a summary of the salient features of the report, with several excellent charts. It further discusses the method of preparation, the deficiencies of data, and includes a brief but enlightening history of the growth of the mineral industries in the United States. Part II explains the nature of our search for new mineral supplies. It also discusses modern trends in mining and treatment of mineral resources.

Part III consists of individual discussion of thirty-nine of our most important metals and minerals. This section includes graphs and tables showing production and consumption, and maps and diagrams showing the locations of producing areas and of important reserves.

When one considers that the value of minerals produced in the United States has increased more than twenty times since 1880, the importance of mineral resources to our economic and social security becomes obvious. Because minerals are so vital to the security of the nation, and because they have been so seriously depleted during two world wars, it is incumbent upon all of us to encourage the conservation of existing reserves and the search for new reserves. This book ably points out that we are not a "have-not" nation; neither are we self-sufficient. With improved mining and treatment methods we can become self-sufficient in twenty-one minerals, partly dependent on other sources for thirteen minerals, and wholly dependent on foreign sources for five minerals.

It is appropriate that this book should appear when there is more discussion of mineral resources than ever before. It should serve as an excellent guide to our thinking about aspects of the Marshall Plan and our ideological war with Russia.

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*The New Men of Power: America's Labor Leaders.* By C. Wright Mills. New York: Harcourt Brace and Company, 1948. Pp. 323. \$3.50.

During the past few years, a new group of men have come into power and they have become important entrepreneurs, functioning as contractors of labor; their unions have become major business enterprises, supplying a labor force for American industries.

This book is a study of American labor unions based upon Dr. Mills' personal research and modern polling techniques that he has used in securing accurate information for writing a book of this type.

A portion of the book is devoted to the study of the history and organization of labor unions; it traces their story up to the present time and includes their internal differences and party ties.

It is the reviewer's belief that Dr. Mills is sympathetic with labor's general cause, nevertheless he has not allowed this to color his study and analysis. This is evidenced somewhat by his concluding remarks that the unions play a vital role in our economy yet neither intellectuals nor rank and file are now running labor unions in the United States.

*The New Men of Power* can be used very profitably by teachers of economics and economic history in the secondary or college level for reference work.

#### HELPFUL CLASSROOM AIDS Pamphlets

The Junior Town Meeting League, 400 South Front Street, Columbus 15, Ohio will be glad to provide information concerning their ma-

terials and discussion aids in teaching controversial issues.

The Department of State has recently released three publications:

*The United Nations—Three Years of Achievement*, Number 3255; *Building the Peace—Foreign Affairs Outline*, Number 17; *Recent Publications Concerning the United Nations*. A bibliography of U. N. and its specialized agencies. Write to the Department of State, Division of Publications, Washington 25, D. C.

*Philadelphia Facts: Business and Civic Statistics*. Tables, Diagrams, Maps, 1948. Chamber of Commerce, Philadelphia 3, Pa. Price \$1.00.

*Operation Atomic Vision*. An educational operation to increase the public understanding of atomic energy for peace-time living. A teaching unit for high school students. National Education Association, 1201 Sixteenth Street, N.W., Washington 6, D. C. Price per copy 60 cents.

*Education for Freedom in the States*. A new publication of the United States Office of Education, describing state laws as they relate to the teaching of American history, government and patriotism. Bulletin Number 11, 1948. Superintendent of Documents, United States Government Printing Office, Washington 25, D. C. Single Copy 20 cents.

The French Embassy, Information Division, 610 Fifth Ave., New York 20, New York, is offering a 214-page illustrated booklet on France, free to teachers.

A new visual unit on "The Other Americas" is offered free of charge by Pan American World Airways System, 28-19 Bridge Plaza North, Long Island City 1, New York, N. Y.

Illustrated booklets on the coal industry may be had from the Bituminous Coal Institute, Educational Department, Southern Building, Washington 5, D. C.

An album of pictures of American Presidents may be obtained from the Kellogg Company, Box 254 H, Battle Creek, Michigan. Price 10 cents.

The Informational Classroom Pictures, 40 Ionia Avenue, N.W., Grand Rapids, Michigan.

is offering a 40-page booklet on the subject of "How To Teach with Pictures." Price 10 cents.

*The Study and Teaching of American History.* Edited By Richard E. Thursfield (Washington, D. C.: National Council for Social Studies, 1201 Sixteenth Street, N.W., Washington 6, D. C.) is one of the most outstanding studies made in the social studies field in recent years. Price \$2.00 paper, \$2.50 cloth. A copy of the *Detroit Citizenship Study* may be obtained by writing to Stanley E. Diamond, Director, 436 Merrick Street, Detroit 2, Michigan. Price 25 cents.

#### Articles

"How Can We Improve High School Teaching?" *School Review*, LVI (September, 1948).  
 "A Report on Current History," *The Civic Leader*, XVL (October 18, 1948).  
 "What Has Happened to Progressive Education?" By Frederick L. Reder. *School and Society*, LXVII (May, 1948).  
 "Who Has the Power?" *The News Letter*, Bureau of Educational Research of Ohio State University, Columbus, Ohio (Nov., 1948).  
 "Sweden's Place Among Nations," *The American Observer*, XVIII (November 29, 1948).  
 "Italy: Pauper or Convalescent?" by Colston E. Warne, *Current History* (November, 1948).  
 "Education in a Divided World," by James Bryant Conant, is a summary of a much discussed book. *N. E. A. Journal* (December, 1948).  
 "We Learn What We Live," by William Heard Kilpatrick. *Childhood Education*, XXV (October, 1948).  
 "Report From Paris" by Edgar Dale. *Educational Screen*, XXVII (October, 1948). An account of the Unesco Conference.  
 "The Story of Benjamin Rush," *Commonwealth: The Magazine for Pennsylvania*, II (October, 1948).

#### CURRENT PUBLICATIONS RECEIVED

*A Constitutional History of Georgia.* Compiled by Albert Berry Saye. Athens, Georgia: The University of Georgia Press, 1948. Pp. xvi, 503. \$4.50.

A detailed study of the constitutional history of the state from the charter of 1732 to the Constitution of 1945.

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*Geography of the World.* By Leonard O. Packard, Bruce Overton, and Ben. D. Wood. New York: The Macmillan Company, 1948. Pp. 433. \$4.00.

A new and up-to-date geography of the world.

*U. S. A.* By H. U. Faulkner, T. Kepner, and Pitkin. New York: Harper and Brothers, 1948. Pp. 630. \$1.92.

This history text is written to meet the needs of postwar junior high school pupils.

*The People's Choice.* By Paul Felix Lazarsfeld, Bernard Berelson, and Hazel Gaudet. New York: Columbia University Press, 1948. Pp. 178. \$2.75.

A study showing how a voter makes up his mind in a presidential election.

*The Economy of the USSR During World War II.* By N. A. Voznesenski. Washington, D. C.: Public Affairs Press, 1948. Pp. 104. \$3.00.

A monograph which throws considerable light on the problems which confronted Russia during the late war and the efforts which were made to solve these problems.

*Youth Comes of Age.* By Wellington G. Pierce. New York: McGraw-Hill Book Company, 1948. Pp. xvi, 400. \$2.00.

This book presents the important experiences which a teen-ager faces in the process of growing up.

*The Rise of Our Free Nation.* By Edna McGuire and Thomas B. Portwood. New York: The Macmillan Company, 1948. Pp. xlvi, 710. \$2.52.

While many excellent features of the former edition have been retained, the text has been almost entirely rewritten.

*The Proper Study of Mankind.* By Stuart Chase. New York: Harper and Brothers, 1948. Pp. xxvii, 311. \$3.00.

A challenging new text for college courses in human relations and in social science survey courses.

*Palestine Dilemma.* By Frank C. Sakran. Washington, D. C.: Public Affairs Press, 1948. Pp. xxi, 230. \$3.25.

An analysis of present conditions in the Palestine story.

*Rural Sociology.* By Lowry Nelson. New York: American Book Company, 1948. Pp. xxvi, 567. \$4.25.

A textbook which deals with the sociology of rural life and the various forms of social interactions among rural groups.

*A Job for Every Woman.* By Louise M. Neuschutz. New York: The H. W. Wilson Company, 1948. Pp. xvii, 206. \$3.00.

The purpose of this book is to describe the various types of work open to women.

*Album of American History.* Volume 4. By James Truslow Adams, Editor-in-Chief. New York: Charles Scribner's Sons, 1948. Pp. 384. \$7.50.

The final volume of a series of four, telling the story of American history from 1492 to 1917 by means of pictures.

*The American Constitution: Origins and Development.* By Alfred H. Kelly and Winfred A. Harbison. New York: W. W. Norton and Company, 1948. Pp. xxix, 940. \$7.50.

A new book covering the development of American constitutionalism from its origin to our own time.

*Plunkitt of Tammany Hall.* By William L. Rordon. New York: Alfred A. Knopf, 1948. Pp. 131. \$2.50.

A witty classic on the realities of city politics.

*The Dilemma of Post-War Germany.* Compiled by Julia E. Johnson. New York: The Reference Shelf, Volume 20, Number 3, The H. W. Wilson Company, 1948. Pp. 304. \$1.50.

A discussion of the leading problems facing Germany today.

*Historical Sociology.* By Harry Elmer Barnes. New York: The Philosophical Library, 1948. Pp. xi, 186. \$3.00.

This book traces the development of the theories concerning social origins and social evolutions from Oriental times to our own day.

*Charters of Philanthropies.* Compiled by M. M. Chambers. Boston, Massachusetts: The Merry Mount Press, 1948. Pp. 224. \$3.00.

An interesting study of the outstanding trust foundations of our country.

*General Education on the Social Studies.* By Albert William Levi. Washington, D. C.: American Council on Education, 1948. Pp. 336. \$3.50.

A valuable report as to the content and organization of a well-integrated program of social studies in general education.